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A Special Curriculum Is Not Needed for Character Education

*Every curriculum develops character—either good or bad.
The educator's job, as the author sees it, is to design the curriculum so that it will contribute directly to worthy living*

By A. L. THRELKELD, Superintendent of Schools, Denver

WHEN character education is considered as an objective of school life, the first suggestion that comes to many educators is that special courses and a special curriculum should be adopted. In fact, highly specialized schemes of various kinds spring into being, some of them taking on the nature of cults and some that of patent medicines.

There are many persons in the educational field whose aim it seems is to evolve some kind of a drug store that would contain the remedial patent medicine for any character defect that might be discovered in a pupil. Some such schemes become commercialized, and then they have all of the energy behind them that comes from the protection and promotion of a vested interest.

A Dangerous Type of Approach

To my way of thinking, this is not the fundamental approach that should be made through the curriculum to character education. Such an approach tends almost to give a pathologic meaning to the whole process of character education. Carried to an extreme, it causes a pupil for whom character improvement is sought to be viewed as a patient who needs to be cured of some disease. It may lead to morbidity on the part of the more sensitive pupils. Many students of human nature

have long since recognized the danger that lies in this highly intensified, special type of approach to the problem of character education. As quoted in the tenth yearbook of the Department of Superintendence of the N. E. A., which is devoted to the subject of character education, President Wilson once said, "There is no more priggish practice than the effort at self-improvement." In the same volume, Dr. George Herbert Palmer is quoted as follows:

A Widely Supported Theory

"No part of us is more susceptible of morbidity than the moral sense; none demoralizes more thoroughly when morbid. The trouble, too, affects chiefly those of finer fiber. The majority of healthy children, as has been said, harden themselves against theoretic talk, and it passes over them like the wind. Here and there a sensitive soul absorbs the poison and sets itself seriously to work installing duty as the mainspring of its life.

"We all know the unwholesome result: the person from whom spontaneity is gone, who criticizes everything he does, who has lost his sense of proportion, who teases himself endlessly and teases his friends—so far as they remain his friends—about the right and wrong of each petty act. It is a disease, a moral disease, and takes the place

in the spiritual life of that which the doctors are fond of calling 'nervous prostration' in the physical. . . . The wise teacher will extirpate the first sproutings of the weed; for a weed more difficult to extirpate when grown there is not. We run a serious risk of implanting it in our children when we undertake their class instruction in ethics."

The point of view expressed in these two quotations has wide support today among psychologists, educational philosophers and students of human nature generally. I suggest that those persons who are interested in comparing one to another the various points of view that have had considerable following with reference to the nature of character education should read Chapters 3 and 4 of the tenth yearbook of the Department of Superintendence. These two chapters show that highly specialized methods, known as character education plans, are apt to represent only fragments of the total consideration. It is always true that extreme emphasis upon a fragment distorts and disintegrates.

How Shall Character Education Be Handled?

I think emphasis upon a special curriculum in character education tends to produce the defects in attitudes of mind and their attendant ways of reacting that are inherent in an overemphasis upon conscious self-improvement as such. This type of curriculum tends to produce the kind of individual against whom Doctor Palmer's statement was directed, that is, the person who installs duty as the mainspring of his life, who tends to keep his mind centered upon his own virtues rather than upon something outside himself, such as a social situation in which there is opportunity to do something worth while for humanity, let the results be what they may to himself. This individual tends to become a selfish person, one who thinks narrowly about the salvation of his own soul. The Great Teacher of Nazareth recognized the evils of such a psychology when He said: "For whosoever will save his life shall lose it, but whosoever will lose his life for My sake, the same shall save it."

But does this imply that we are to do nothing about character education? Are we to give no attention to the question, What is the good life, and how may we attain it? I think not. It is only a question of method that is raised here. It is a question of how we shall go about it. So far as this discussion is concerned, the question is: How shall character education be handled in curriculum making?

My contention is that the educators' concept of the good curriculum, that is, the one that is of most worth both to the individual and to society,

should be much broader than that which is implied by a special type of so-called character education curriculum that tends to produce the evils mentioned. Educators should hold to the principle that character making is not something that occurs only in a special compartment of life, but is something that goes on all the time, for better or for worse. Since this is practically a truism, I shall not attempt to develop arguments to substantiate it. I shall merely point out that this suggests that any curriculum is a character making curriculum, that is, it makes for better or for worse character. Educators cannot escape this fact. The only thing they can do to help the situation is to design the curriculum so that it will contribute directly to worthy living. This raises the question, What is worthy living?

Far be it from me to sit as a deity, or as the special envoy of such, to answer this question. The debate as to what constitutes the good life is as old as life itself. It is possible, however, to effect considerable agreement upon a broad principle as a basis from which to proceed. Most of the discussions of ethical objectives of living contain the thought that a person's main life policy or direction should be that of living for the social good. Even this objective has its defects when narrowly conceived, but it offers the safest guide available when adequately conceived in both its horizontal and its vertical dimensions. When the individual thinks of the social good, the horizontal dimension of his thinking is marked off by the extent to which he includes humanity in his thinking. Is he thinking only of his immediate family, the immediate community in which he lives, or does he branch out to include the state, the nation and the world? Then, what I have chosen to call the vertical dimension of the individual's thinking is marked off by the extent to which he considers the distant future, which implies a look into the distant past. In my opinion, the greater these dimensions of thinking and acting, the finer is the individual's character.

Individual Goodness Can't Be Measured

The general aim of character education conceives the social good and good for the individual as integral parts of the fundamental process of life. It follows that character education may be thought of as directed, on the one hand, toward the development of the best possible society, and, on the other hand, toward the development of the highest type of individual. The individual expresses his better self by service to the common cause of humanity, and through the cooperation of other individuals working toward the same end, society is elevated so as to encourage still further growth on the part of the individual.

There seems to be no way of measuring the goodness in the individual which has been so thoroughly validated by experience as that of evaluating his acts in terms of their effect in the long run upon his fellow men. The longer the run of the effect of the individual's living and the greater the number of people affected by it, the more significant his life becomes. The greater the sanction given his acts in the long run and the larger the number of people from whom the sanction comes, the more certain may the world be of the goodness of the individual's life. Both the social and the individual aspects of character education are thus apparent.

Must Modernize Courses of Study

In Chapter 3 of the tenth yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, the discussion of the more traditional objectives of character education is followed by an attempt to synchronize these specialized or fragmentary points of view with the following statement of the objective of character education:

"The objective remains the discovery or creation of a way of living which conserves and produces as many values as possible for as many persons as possible over as long a time as possible. Character education is the facilitation of this way of life."

It is from a consideration of the implications of these more general statements of the objective of character education that the curriculum making should proceed. I shall attempt to suggest what some of these implications are.

It is obvious that these objectives imply the identification of the curriculum with the needs of life as the pupil sees them. I do not mean by this that the whims and caprices of the pupil should govern school procedure, nor do I mean that the curriculum should be limited to what the pupil may at first glance look upon as a life need. I think it is the function of teaching so to stimulate the individual that he will see farther than he would otherwise have seen. The fact remains, however, that if a curriculum is to be constructive in its effect upon the life of the individual, he must be made to see the curriculum as something inherently necessary in meeting the needs of life as he sees them. I cannot conceive of the curriculum's having a fundamental value in character development on any other basis. If this point of view is accepted, it follows naturally that any course of study that measures up to this criterion is character making.

In order to bring about this situation in the schools it is imperative that a consideration of the vital issues with which the individual is in

everyday contact be included in school life. At the dinner table, in his home life and in various community contacts he is experiencing real life. If this experience is not dealt with in the school, how can the school be vital to the individual? It is difficult today, because of our changing civilization, to determine life needs in a specific way. Nevertheless, that which is obviously obsolete and that which has no vital bearing upon life as it is today should be eliminated from the courses of study. Every effort should be made to bring the courses of study up-to-date.

The tendency will be to change the curriculum and the teaching methods so as to equip the individual to live in consistency with the broad social objectives already mentioned. It will be found that the essential problem of life is living constructively in a social medium. There is no such thing as an absolute individual. Individual life is found only in a social situation, and it inevitably develops with the social situation. A social situation depends upon the individual for its development, and the individual depends upon the social situation for his development. Educators must depart from the old concept that society is one force and the individual is an opposing force, and that the two can get along together only through some kind of contractual arrangement. As a matter of fact, each is a phase of the whole process of living, and as the curriculum is changed to include those materials that best enable a pupil to live constructively this concept of the relationship of the individual to society and society to the individual is certain to grow.

Educators, Pupils and Public Should Ask "Why?"

While this approach to character education may seem at first glance to rule out everything except the field of social studies, it is obvious upon further consideration that such is not the case. There is no subject that is commonly taught in the schools that is not in actuality a social science or a social art. For example, Why is mathematics? Is it just for the sake of mathematics? Or is mathematics an instrument, not just of an individual isolated mind, but a social instrument, if you please, by which the sum total of life is enriched? Dr. Charles H. Judd has pointed out that people could not work out the mechanics of a social arrangement, such as meeting one another on a certain date and at a certain hour were it not for mathematics. Modern methods of transportation and communication are two of the phenomena of social life that would be impossible were it not for mathematics. The social significance of mathematics is almost unlimited, and the same is true of any subject that has a legitimate place in the curriculum. It does not require

any stretch of the imagination to recognize the social significance of music, painting, sculpture or any of the other fine arts. It is a shame that educators have not more fully comprehended the inherent synthesis of these various aspects of living. Real meaning will be given to the school program if the educators, the pupils and the public will constantly ask the question, "Why?" concerning everything that is done and taught in the school. Once this is accomplished school life, both curricular and extracurricular, will be character education in the constructive sense. In the meantime it will not be necessary to think much about character education as such.

Educators Must Reform Themselves

I realize that what I have suggested is not easy to accomplish. It calls for close study and courage in working for the changes. I should like to ask a question of both groups of educators, those who like to think of character education in terms of specific trait development as well as those who, although they do not make this approach, expect certain traits to stand out in the pupil's character, such as honesty, courage and industry. The question I wish to ask is: How can the schools be expected to contribute to these traits if the educators themselves do not possess them? If educators do not practice character education, how can they teach it? Educators overlook the discerning power of the young people who are the pupils in the schools. The pupils, as a whole, are not as easily fooled as older people about many things. The pupils' minds are not so encumbered by acquired prejudices and traditions. They possess the saving grace of the frank, open, honestly inquisitive mind. It would be interesting to know who, up to now, has had the more right on his side, the pupil or the teacher, in those instances where the teacher has insisted that the pupil should learn a certain thing and the pupil has insisted that it was not worth while.

If a real character education program is to be effected in the schools, educators must give more thought to reforming themselves and the schools and must think less about imparting character to pupils. Once this challenge is met, character education will pretty well take care of itself. Much progress has been made and still is being made along this line. The schools are vastly better today than they were a generation ago. The educator, however, should guard against any tendency to seek satisfaction from what has been accomplished. Virility sees new fields to conquer and proceeds to conquer them.¹

A Flexible Sight and Sound System

The Rye High School, Rye, N. Y., has one of the most flexible and comprehensive sight and sound systems of any modern school, according to Homer G. Shattuck of the school's visual education department. The equipment comprises sound pictures, nonsynchronous record reproduction, a microphone announcing system and radio program distribution.

The outstanding feature of the installation is its flexibility. Two separate distribution channels allow two simultaneous programs. Part of the school may be listening to a particular radio broadcast while the nonsynchronous record reproduction is being used in the music class. Two separate radio receivers allow two radio programs to be distributed simultaneously to different rooms in the building.

The auditorium, equipped for talking motion pictures and public address, is a distinct unit in itself although it can be coupled with the entire school. A separate amplifier and control system in the projection booth permits this arrangement. The two motion picture projectors, the screen and the speakers are of standard theater type. The projection booth also has a nonsynchronous table so that musical programs may be supplied during assemblies.

A Help to the Principal

One notable feature of this system is the use of both the microphone and the nonsynchronous table simultaneously. This allows, for example, a Bible reading, utilizing a soft background of organ music while the reading is picked up by an off-stage microphone. A microphone outlet is also provided in the booth for announcements. In addition to the stage speakers, there are two large dynamic speakers back of each proscenium grille, offering a more logical sound outlet for announcements and assembly activities. The stage speakers are used exclusively for the purpose of sound picture presentation.

From the principal's point of view, another valuable use of this equipment is its application for announcing purposes. It permits the principal to get in touch with the entire school without calling an assembly. While each room has a volume control, there is no "off" position on the room speaker. Thus the principal is certain that everyone must hear the announcement. During registration it is invaluable. The principal can give directions from his office while the pupils are seated at their home room desks with all necessary writing facilities at their disposal.

¹Read at the meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the N. E. A., Minneapolis.



Why Extracurricular Activities Are Necessary in the School

The so-called extracurricular activities, the author shows, are vital in the educational program and should be considered an integral part of the curriculum. The term is out-of-date and conveys an erroneous impression

By ORIN W. KAYE, Superintendent of Schools, Paw Paw, Mich.

IN AMERICAN educational parlance the term "extracurricular" refers to a broad field of activities which, taken in their entirety, almost defy specific definition.

In my opinion the term is misleading. The so-called extracurricular idea is no more a program than it is a philosophy of education, a philosophy functioning in such a manner that the school takes a new and broadened view of its responsibilities. It recognizes that pupils learn to do by doing; that secondary education is concerned with the education of the whole child and that educators must no longer worship the fetish of intellectual accomplishment at the expense of all other accomplishments; that all school activities and experiences are educative and that the difference between cur-

ricular and extracurricular is therefore implied rather than real.

The American public secondary schools and also the elementary schools are created and supported from funds derived from public taxation. Everyone from the smallest landholder to the richest corporation contributes to their support. In times like the present, when economic stress and financial debility are the paramount subjects of thought and conversation, the public turns its attention to the tax supported institutions. Groups that attack these institutions with frenzied zeal spring up everywhere. One of the first things they discover, and consequently attack, is the fact that there are certain activities, all of which cost money, called extracurricular. Is it not the most logical thing



The "talkie" equipment in the Copernicus Junior High School, Hamtramck, Mich., facilitates many interesting extracurricular activities.

in the world for those whose sympathy for public education, publicly supported, is temporarily abated, to seek to destroy anything that educators themselves term as an "extra"? I believe it is. I know that is what they are doing, and they are doing it without regard for the merits of the activities they seek to eliminate. I believe that this condition of affairs arises partially from the fact that these activities are improperly named and I therefore submit to you the term "correlative activities" which I shall use interchangeably with "extracurricular" henceforth in this discussion.

"The Poor Man's College"

How did extracurricular or correlative activities arise? Why have they become an integral part of the program of almost all secondary schools and an important element in the life of any American secondary school that is justified in claiming modernity?

The growth of the American secondary school during the last thirty years has been amazingly rapid. Enrollments have increased over 1,600 per cent during that period. In fact, enrollments have increased over 275 per cent during the last fifteen years, which proves that growth has been continuous thus far during the twentieth century. The indications are that this growth will continue until virtually every boy and girl of secondary school age will be enrolled in school. Pupils are now recruited from homes of laborers, small merchants, mechanics and farmers, as well as from the homes of the well-to-do. The high school has thus become the poor man's college.

Hand in hand with this numerical growth has

come a broadening of the traditional curriculum. Originally about a dozen different subjects were offered. Today over two hundred different subjects have a place in the curriculums of these institutions. When these new courses were added, little concern was evidenced in regard to methods of presentation. Consequently formal and traditional methods were employed in teaching the new subject matter. Possibly it was too much to expect the addition of new courses and new methods of presentation to come simultaneously. Nevertheless inadequacies were at once apparent and educators began to realize that the problem demanded investigation.

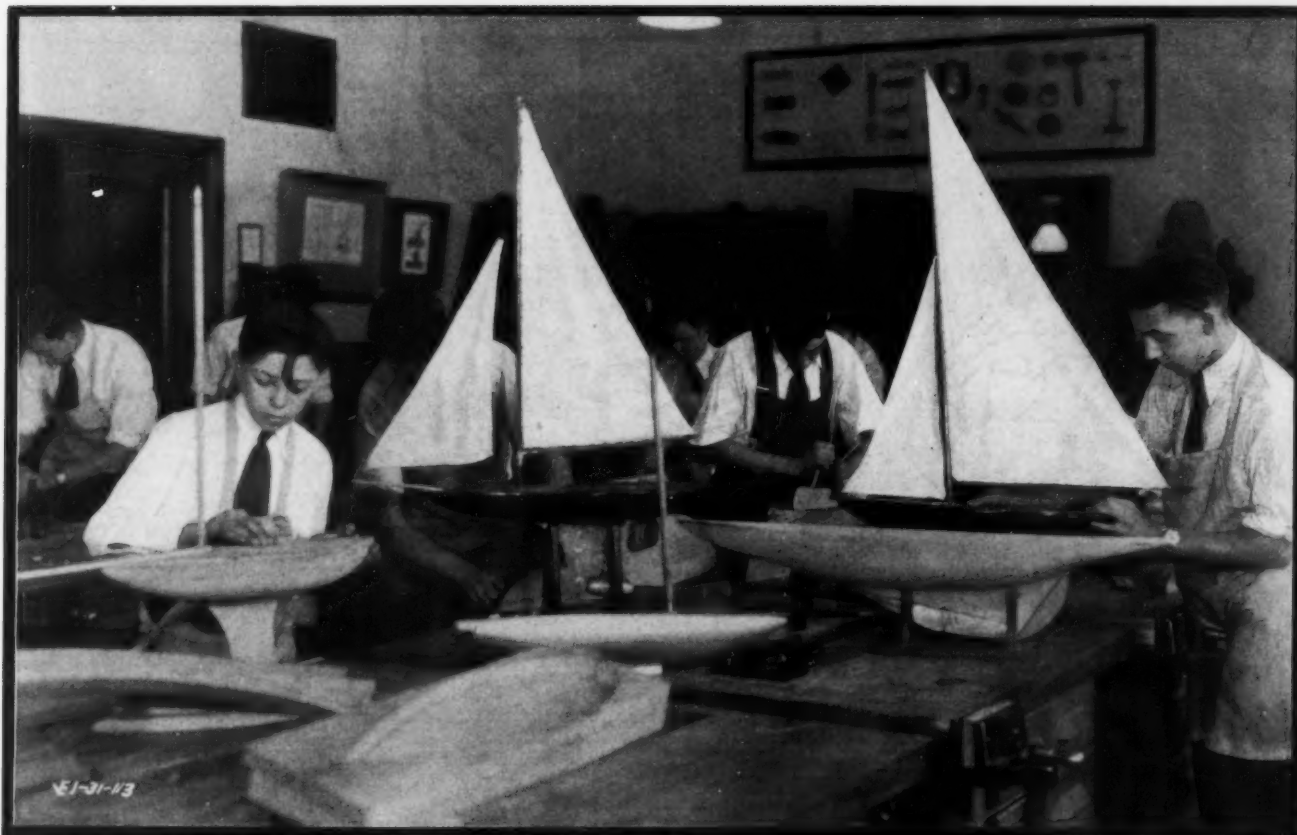
A new environment filled with complexities for living was recognized. What was the school doing to improve conditions arising from this complex environment, and how was the school helping to solve the new problems? Specifically, what contribution was the school making to teach pupils the fundamentals of cooperation—a prime necessity in the machine age? What contributions and interpretations was the school making in teaching boys and girls the part they would be expected to play in a modern democracy? In what manner was the school contributing to the realization of the importance of the fundamentals of health, the use of



Hobbies are vigorously encouraged in the Copernicus Junior High School. This model house, built by a pupil in his spare time, won first prize in a "Better Homes Contest."

leisure, worthy home membership and the development of ethical character?

Students of education found the credit side of the ledger almost blank while the debit side was large. These were vital life matters in which the school was not functioning under a classroom procedure that was characterized by traditional methods of textbook teaching and passive learning. To improve this condition it was necessary to offer



opportunities for the practice of these essential life activities within the scope of the school organization. From this realization there has gradually risen a new philosophy of education that in a sense revolves around a concept of activity learning in all its implications, no few of which are involved in this whole concept of extracurricular or correlative activity programs.

A correlative activities program utilizes both a program and a philosophy in the hope of making the school real rather than artificial. It creates the atmosphere of a laboratory where passive learning is correlated with opportunities for actual practice. I want to emphasize the point that such a program can and does modify traditional classroom procedure, and that it is not merely the addition of certain types of activities in which pupils are forced to take part because of the autocracy of the administrative and instructional officers.

Extracurricular activities were originally considered merely as pupil organizations meeting after school hours. Their relationship to the school's curriculum was not considered. The sponsorship was usually given to a teacher who was willing to add to her regular classroom duties or to a teacher who would not object too strenuously if asked to carry additional responsibilities.

Following this stage of development these activities came to be recognized as being of sufficient importance to merit a place in the program of the

Saturday mornings are busy times for members of the Boat Club at Durfee Intermediate School, Detroit. Below is a scene from the Washington Bicentennial Pageant presented by pupils of the Copernicus Junior High School.



regular school day. Their sponsorship, however, was still carried as an "extra" by various members of the teaching staff.

At this stage the movement underwent many changes—values became more discernible, criteria for judging were established and the desirability for correlation with the traditional curriculum was generally recognized. Its very philosophy was taken over into traditional subject matter courses and the blending of these with the activities program was in a position to become a reality. While it cannot be said that this ideal has been universally accomplished, I believe that American elementary and secondary schools are on their way toward it.

Student Government Is Beneficial

Certain underlying principles of the activities are included in a functional program of the type I advocate and which I believe many American secondary schools now promote. The first of these might be called the principle of student responsibility.

According to Prof. E. K. Fretwell, Teachers College, Columbia University, "It is the business of the school to organize the whole situation so that there is a favorable opportunity for everyone,

teachers as well as pupils, to practice the qualities of good citizenship with results satisfying to the one doing the practicing. The real purpose of education is to enable the individual to become more intelligently self-directive. Manifestly this requires that the school be alive." It also requires that pupils be allowed opportunities for the exercise of initiative and organization. It requires the organization to be such that pupils may formulate standards of conduct and may also exercise some degree of responsibility in the administration of the standards. Thus the school becomes a laboratory for democratic conduct. The duties, obligations and rights of citizenship in a democratic government are as real to secondary school pupils as they are to adults, when schools are organized in this manner.

If the above condition is to be met some form of student government and control, consistent with the pupils' ability, is essential. I realize that many educators are reluctant to relinquish such rights and responsibilities to pupils. They look upon the procedure as a fad and a fallacy. Nevertheless, at the present time some of the best schools with which I am acquainted have taken this radical step successfully. The transition to such a type of or-



Pupils of the Hanneman School, Detroit, participating in a memorial ceremony at the Lincoln statue.



Special "B" boys in the Hubert School, Detroit, get an early start in learning the shoe repairing art.

ganization has been gradual, developing step by step as the respective student bodies have grown in ability to cope with the various situations. Permanent and complete transition without training is fatal as is also the idea that pupils of high school age can ever carry all the responsibility.

Individual Differences of Pupils Recognized

In the schools to which I refer the curricular aspects of citizenship study are supplemented, intensified and stimulated by actual practice in school life. Student councils and student elections, carried on in somewhat the same manner as state elections and student courts, with advisory responsibilities in matters of pupil discipline, may be articulated with classroom study to bring about a desirable understanding of good citizenship. Because of these activities the pupils are interested in visits to state courts and legislative bodies in order that they may learn more about the practices and procedures, which are duplicated by the pupils in their own organizations.

The second underlying principle of the correlative activities program is that it should arise from the classroom activities and return to motivate them. This has been illustrated in the matter of citizenship training. It is equally true in the other fields if the activities are carefully organized and administered.

The third underlying principle of the activity program is that it takes into account individual differences among the various pupils. Children differ in ability, sex, probable career, social status, environment, traditions, habits, race, nationality, age, health, intellectual development, economic status, morals and in numerous other ways. Consequently, the activities program must be varied and so organized that it will appeal to, and at the same time contribute to, the development of the latent abilities of the heterogeneous group that comprises every school. Such a program provides possibilities for the equalization of opportunity, which is a democratic ideal. Doctor Briggs, Teachers College, Columbia University, has said, "The one place

where democratic ideals and objectives may function in a natural matrix is in the conduct of the extracurricular activities. Whether a pupil is notably dull, studious, clever, rich, poor, handsome or ugly he should have an equal opportunity to be a member of a school organization, which should under all circumstances be organized upon a basis of democratic society."

A fourth underlying principle recognizes that correlative activities are educative only when they tend toward the development of qualities that promote complete citizenship, notably initiative, cooperation, leadership and intelligent obedience to authority. The broader the program and the more functional the philosophy of this type of education in any school, the more opportunity there is to develop a diversified and balanced leadership.

Develops Spirit and Morale

A fifth principle of the activities program is that it tends to make the school a happy place in which to live. It also promotes, through group activities, a feeling of ownership on the part of the pupils. When the pupils actually develop this sense of ownership and feel that what they do is for their own good or harm, they begin to emerge from their childish inclination to regard the teacher in an unfriendly light. As this spirit develops the pupils come more and more to regard the teacher as a co-worker and adviser. Thus the spirit and morale of the school may be developed to a high pitch, and spontaneity, joy, pride, willingness to cooperate, initiative and willingness to assume responsibility, become characteristics of the school.

I know of a secondary school boy who transferred last winter from a traditional school to a school organized on the activity basis. During the first session he practiced what he considered good preliminary procedure. He created confusion and practiced what he called "trying out the teachers" to find out how far he could proceed in causing a disturbance without suffering a penalty. At the end of the first session the young man was invited to appear before a group of pupils for a conference. In that conference he was told that the school frowned upon his tactics and that the pupils did not tolerate such conduct. The pupils impressed upon him the fact that the school belonged to them as well as to the teachers and that their interest in the school was as sincere as was that of the faculty. The young man underwent a marvelous transformation as a result of the conference. I am told that whereas his work in the traditional institution had been of an inferior quality, under the new environment he became a good student. He also learned to respect the rights of others.

Many pupils, as a result of the school's activity

program, have experiences which they would not have at home. These experiences enrich the lives of the pupils, and lead to a fuller, happier and more wholesome life. I refer to the excursion phase of the activity program, which has been developed in Germany, and to the programs for drama, music, art and the classics which are often lifted above the dull monotony of classroom instruction through the supplemental activities provided by the various school clubs and organizations. These agencies open unlimited possibilities for varied experiences of the type that adolescent youth enters upon with so much enthusiasm. These agencies also transfer the urge for accomplishment from the teaching staff to the individual pupil so that it can be truly said the pupil acts upon his own initiative and thereby develops greater interest in his program.

The correlative activities program is the laboratory phase of the secondary school in which the pupils are given opportunities to develop the personal and social qualities that combine to make intelligent citizens. The development of ability to make choices, increased self-control and self-discipline, sympathy, tolerance, cooperation, leadership, culture, intellectual power and efficiency, are fruits of the program. I do not offer the correlative activities program as a panacea for every ill of the public school system, but the wisdom and psychologic soundness of such a program cannot be denied.¹

Expenditures for Public and Private Education

Ten cents a day paid by each of the 72,943,624 persons of voting age in the United States would pay the entire bill for the public education of almost 26,500,000 students, according to the U. S. Office of Education. The annual cost for publicly controlled education for each adult twenty-one years of age and over in 1930 was \$36.42. The total cost was a little over two and a half billion dollars.

An additional two or three cents a day for the voting population would finance education, now under private control, which cost a little over half a billion dollars in 1930 for educating approximately 3,500,000 students.

For public and private education the annual cost in 1930 per adult was \$44.34. Between twelve and thirteen cents a day for the voting population would meet the entire expense of the education of approximately 30,000,000 students, costing a total of \$3,200,000,000.

¹Paper read before the International Conference on Education, Mainz, Germany, 1932.

Problems Rural School Teachers Are Facing

Through the leadership of supervisory officers teachers in rural schools are enabled to develop skill in meeting the difficulties that are analyzed here

By GEORGE C. KYTE, Professor of Education, University of California

WHEN the supervisor of rural schools plans his program of supervision he is confronted with the problem of determining the nature of the help he should give teachers. Experience has taught him that many need help on certain typical problems; that some need assistance on various specific ones. Whether he considers a problem general or specific depends on the evidence that he has accumulated with respect to all problems sensed by him or reported by teachers. If he turns to the literature to discover the difficulties of rural teachers, he finds there little that is helpful. The present study was made for the purpose of offering the rural school supervisor guidance in determining the problems teachers most frequently need his aid in solving.

Final Returns Made by 115 Teachers

The problems reported by teachers offer significant leads for supervisory effort. A letter was therefore sent to all teachers in the rural schools of Lenawee, Monroe, Oakland and Wayne Counties, Michigan, requesting them to send in, on a form submitted, lists of their serious difficulties. The teachers were assured that the information given would be treated as confidential, and that the facts would be tabulated for the purpose of determining the nature of help to be given them. On the report form the teachers listed (1) their unsolved problems and (2) the serious difficulties that they believed they had overcome. In reporting the latter they indicated how they had solved each difficulty.

Returns from 180 teachers in the four counties yielded 536 problems and difficulties. When they were analyzed, classified and tabulated, they were found to include 208 specific items. To this number rural supervisors added twenty-three others which the lists suggested to them or which they recalled from their experiences. All but four of these added items dealt with teachers' personal problems. The organized set of 231 problems were

mimeographed and submitted to the same 180 teachers. They were informed that the list would suggest to them many problems that they had overlooked. They were requested to check once each item that had given them serious difficulty and to check twice each item for which they had not been able to find a satisfactory solution.

The data presented in this study are those ob-

TABLE I—PROBLEMS IN CLASSROOM INSTRUCTION REPORTED BY RURAL TEACHERS

Type of Problem	Teachers Reporting the Problem
Keeping children profitably at work in class	74
Lack of time during the school day	53
The difficulty of having only one pupil in a grade	51
Too many grades in one room	48
Unequal ability of children in the same grade	46
Some children persist in "day dreaming"	38
Classes distract attention of others studying	37
Capable children fail to prepare lessons	37
Children have ineffective study habits	34
Teaching the mentally subnormal children	34
Difficulty in teaching the music required	32
Unfairness of county upper grade examinations	32
Dealing with pupils classified in wrong grade	31
Difficulty in making stimulating assignments	30
Pupils too dependent on the teacher	30
Lack of time for the retarded children	29
Providing playground games for all grades	28
Transfer records of pupils not received	28
Difficulty in teaching handwriting	26
Teaching phonics in the first grade	26
Beginners start school at various times during the year	25
Supervising the seat work of pupils	25
Providing seat work for young children before they can read	25
Conducting satisfactory opening exercises for all grades	24
Pupils from other systems not ready for their grade	24
Children behind their grade due to illness	22
Guiding 4-H Club work	21
Teaching fourth grade arithmetic	21
Children behind course of study requirements	19
Keeping large boys interested in school work	19
Pupils unable to discriminate between important and unimportant materials	19
Beginners unable to follow written directions for seat work	19
Supervising the playground activities	18
Difficulty in asking thought provoking questions	17

tained from all teachers returning the checked lists. The returns from 115 teachers yielded a total of 4,392 checked items. Hence the average number of checks per item was nineteen. One item was checked seventy-four times and, at the other extreme, each of three items was checked only twice. The tables in the article include all of the difficulties checked by at least 15 per cent of the teachers. The additional significant points checked by 10 per cent

TABLE II—PROBLEMS IN CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT REPORTED BY RURAL TEACHERS

Type of Problem	Teachers Reporting the Problem
What to do at recess and noon during bad weather	57
Little children must wait for older ones until school closes	46
Certain pupils arrive too early in the morning	46
Frequent tardiness of certain children	36
Children fail to get work in when it is due	36
Children leaving the classroom during school hours	28
Preparing oral work for second and third grades	27
Keeping children busy	26
Pupils unprepared for recitations	21
Children scatter scraps of paper on the floor	21
Keeping to a time schedule	21
Teaching in an overcrowded room	19
Children leave seats and wander around the room	19
Children frequently look out of the window to main road	17

to 14 per cent of the teachers are included in the discussion.

In Table I are listed the problems in classroom instruction reported by the teachers. Although 74 of the 115 teachers indicated that keeping children profitably at work in class was a serious difficulty, only 23 per cent of those reporting it indicated that they had failed to solve this problem. The percentage is large enough, however, to indicate the need for giving it supervisory attention with a large group of teachers. The difficulty of having only one pupil in a grade had not been successfully met by 20 per cent of the 51 teachers checking the item. Dissatisfaction with their solutions was indicated by 22 per cent of the 37 teachers checking as difficult the prevention of classes from distracting the attention of others studying. Twenty-three per cent of the 30 teachers indicating serious difficulty with pupils too dependent on the teacher had not been able to overcome it.

On the other hand, various problems in classroom instruction are more challenging than the data in Table I seem to indicate when considered from the standpoint of teachers unable to solve them. For example, of the 53 teachers checking the problem, lack of time during the school day, 57 per cent reported that they had not solved it satisfactorily. Regarding the difficulty that arises

from too many grades enrolled in one room, 35 per cent of the 48 teachers indicated that they had failed to overcome it. Forty-seven per cent of the 34 teachers having serious difficulty in teaching the mentally subnormal children were not satisfied with the way they were meeting the problem. Instructional problems arising from the nonreceipt of records of transferred pupils were unsolved by 46 per cent of the 28 teachers reporting it. Forty-three per cent of the 21 teachers checking the item, guiding 4-H Club work, were dissatisfied with their efforts in dealing with it.

An inspection of the list of difficulties included in Table I discloses three major problems in classroom instruction in which the rural school teachers need considerable help. By far the most common one has to do with the organization of the daily and weekly programs of teaching and fairly close adherence to them. This major problem involves planning the use of the teacher's own time, planning each grade's schedule and planning each pupil's time.

Many Teachers Deficient in Art of Questioning

The second major problem deals with the improvement of the methods of teaching employed. The teachers' difficulties center around three important aspects of teaching: modification of the schoolwork so that the pupils will be learning through natural activities; correlation of subject matter so that there will be economy of effort; individualization of instruction when necessary so that the specific needs of individual pupils will be met.

The third major problem of the teachers has to do with development of skill in certain specific phases of the teaching act. Many teachers need assistance in improving themselves in the art of questioning. Many need help in becoming skillful in making assignments. Many require supervisory guidance in training pupils to study. In addition to the difficulties listed in Table I which reveal the need for improving teachers' skill in helping pupils to form good study habits, two other significant items of a similar nature were checked by teachers. Thirteen per cent had serious difficulty in teaching beginners to study and 12 per cent reported problems in training primary grade pupils to form reading study habits.

Table II contains the list of difficulties in matters of classroom management reported by the teachers. With respect to five of the specific difficulties listed in the table, large percentages of teachers indicated that they had not solved the problems satisfactorily. Of the 19 teachers who checked teaching in an overcrowded room, 53 per cent were not able to cope satisfactorily with the situation. The problem of taking care of the pupils

at recess and noon during inclement weather had proved too difficult to solve in the case of 32 per cent of the 57 teachers checking the item. Twenty-eight per cent of the 46 teachers reported as unsolved the difficulty of dealing with little children who must wait until four o'clock for older pupils. Twenty-five per cent of the 36 teachers confronted with the problem of frequent tardiness of children were not satisfied with their solution of it. Of the 46 teachers reporting the early arrival of children at school as a serious difficulty, 22 per cent had not worked out a satisfactory means of meeting the situation.

A small percentage of the teachers indicated that they were not satisfied with their efforts to get pupils to hand in work on time. The number of teachers confronted with the problem, however, indicates the need for giving it supervisory attention. Since almost one-fourth of the group reported serious difficulty in meeting three other specific problems listed in the table, they probably need some type of definite help in eliminating these difficulties.

An analysis of the items included in Table II leads to the conclusion that there are three general problems of classroom management that supervisory officers should discuss with teachers. The first important problem of management is akin to the first major problem of instruction. When the teachers are aided in learning to utilize effectively the school time available, a number of their specific difficulties in classroom management will have been overcome. In addition to the problems of this nature listed in the table, another significant item was checked by teachers. A considerable number, 13 per cent in fact, reported lack of time to check seat work.

Caring for Pupils Before and After School

The second general type of difficulty is one over which the teachers often have little control but with which they must deal. It consists of dealing with pupils during hours in which they must be cared for in the school either before or after the regular school day. Since transportation facilities, distance from the homes to the school, and the amount of space in the classroom are often unalterable conditions, teachers need supervisory help in coping with the problems that are caused by these situations.

A number of the specific difficulties can be classified under the third general problem. They have to do with the hesitation on the part of teachers to assert their authority. Teachers have difficulties caused by children being late for school, leaving the room during school hours, getting the floor untidy and wandering around the room. To these

items should be added getting children to play out of doors, a problem of 14 per cent of the teachers, and preventing children from losing their tempers while a school program is being prepared, a serious difficulty of 13 per cent of the teachers. An analogous difficulty is involved in the failure of children to hand in work punctually, in the lack of preparation of children for recitations and in their waste of time looking out of the window. An additional item to be considered with this group is that of providing for rotation in the use of available playground equipment, a problem reported by 14 per cent of the teachers.

Impolite Pupils a Problem to Many Teachers

The most common problems involving pupil behavior reported by the rural school teachers are included in Table III. A large majority of teachers have serious difficulty with children being impolite in the classroom. Of the 64 teachers checking this problem, 23 per cent were unable to solve it to their satisfaction. Twenty-three per cent of the 44 teachers having difficulty with pupils wasting time reported the problem not solved satisfactorily. Although 46 teachers considered tattling a serious difficulty, only 17 per cent of the group felt

TABLE III—PROBLEMS INVOLVING PUPIL BEHAVIOR REPORTED BY RURAL TEACHERS

<i>Type of Problem</i>	<i>Teachers Reporting the Problem</i>
Children impolite in the classroom	64
Tattling	46
Waste of time by pupils	44
Pupils quarrel	40
Children waste paper and supplies	35
Children laughing at mistakes of others	34
Pupils do not go directly home after school	28
Boys keep on caps in the schoolroom	28
Children's carelessness with food, soiling floor and desks	27
Pupils misrepresent school activities to their parents	26
Lying	25
Disorderly desks kept by children	24
Bad manners	22
Profanity	20
Bullying	20
Unfairness of children while playing	19
Minors' smoking	19
Wasting time writing frequent notes	19
High tempered children	18
Disregard for others' property	17

that they were unable to cope with it. About 17 per cent of the 40 teachers considering the quarreling of pupils a problem, noted that they had no satisfactory solution for this troublesome situation.

Two other items were checked by at least 30 per cent of the teachers as having caused them serious difficulty but in each case few of them felt that they had not solved the problem. These two difficulties dealt with children wasting instruc-

tional materials and children laughing at the mistakes of others. Of the 26 teachers reporting considerable difficulty with the problem of children misrepresenting school activities to their parents, 27 per cent reported that they had not solved it satisfactorily.

The problems involving pupil behavior can be classified under three types. The first and most common problem has to do largely with the devel-

TABLE IV—PROBLEMS INVOLVING SCHOOL PLANT, EQUIPMENT AND SUPPLIES REPORTED BY RURAL TEACHERS

<i>Type of Problem</i>	<i>Teachers Reporting the Problem</i>
Lack of playground equipment	33
Lack of means for filing school materials	32
Poor condition of building and equipment	29
Lack of usable desks	28
Lack of seat work material	27
No bulletin board for classroom use	27
Electric lights needed	25
New toilets needed	24
No good pictures available	24
Overcrowded cloakroom	23
Lack of materials for activity work	22
Lack of desk copies of textbooks	22
Inadequate equipment	21
Lack of music materials	20
Poor light and ventilation	20
Lack of space for community meetings	20
Insufficient amount of reading material	17

opment of right habits and attitudes of citizenship to replace minor kinds of social misbehavior. The most frequently listed ones of this general type are impoliteness, tattling, quarreling and laughing at the mistakes of others. Three other items occurring less frequently need to be added to the list since they were reported by at least 13 per cent of the teachers. These difficulties are dealing with children chewing gum, preventing children from arguing frequently with each other and checking excessive whispering.

The second most frequently occurring type of behavior problem is the difficulty that arises primarily from weak classroom management. The most common difficulties falling under this head are (1) pupils wasting school time, (2) pupils wasting instructional materials, (3) boys keeping on caps in the classroom, (4) children's carelessness in getting food on desks and floor, (5) children keeping disorderly desks, (6) pupils writing notes. To this list should be added three problems with which at least 12 per cent of the teachers have considerable trouble. They are pupils leaving the grounds without permission, cheating in class and being disorderly.

Although the third problem involving pupil behavior covers no one item which occurs as a markedly general situation, the kinds of difficulties included make it a hard one with which to cope. This major type of problem includes the more

serious offenses against accepted social standards. Misconduct of this nature includes lying, profanity, bullying, unfairness in play, minors' smoking, bad temper and disregard for other pupils' property. Less prevalent difficulties reported by at least 12 per cent of the teachers are stealing, destruction of private property and cheating.

Table IV includes the problems caused by situations involving the school plant, equipment and supplies. In contrast to the lists presented in the first three tables this one contains no serious difficulty checked by more than 33 of the 115 teachers. A large number of the problems in the fourth list, however, were reported as not satisfactorily solved by considerable percentages of the teachers. For instance, 55 per cent of the 20 teachers reporting lack of music materials were unable to overcome the difficulty. Also 50 per cent of the 20 teachers checking lack of space for community meetings had not solved this problem. Over 40 per cent reporting in each case checked as unsolved the respective difficulties caused by lack of electric lights, inadequate equipment, poor condition of toilets and poor light and ventilation. Five of the difficulties were listed as continuing problems by 32 per cent to 39 per cent of the groups reporting them. The five are due to lack of usable desks, filing cabinets, good pictures, desk copies of textbooks and playground equipment.

Poor Facilities Endanger Pupils' Health

An inspection of the problems listed in Table IV discloses that they may be classified under four major difficulties. The most common type involves the architectural defects of the school building. The specific difficulties classified under this heading arise from situations that may seriously affect the health and physical welfare of the children. The most frequently reported items detrimental to health are the poor condition of the building, the deplorable toilet facilities, the overcrowded cloakroom and the poor ventilation. In addition, 14 per cent of the teachers reported poorly heated rooms and 13 per cent complained about insanitary drinking facilities. Two other commonly reported problems indicate that many rural school pupils are running the risk of having their eyesight impaired because of poor lighting.

The second difficulty has to do primarily with school furniture. The outstanding needed equipment not supplied in many schools includes playground equipment, usable desks, bulletin boards, good pictures and essential instructional equipment. Some of the difficulties caused by such a lack include problems of dealing adequately with the physical welfare of the children. Insufficient playground equipment, for instance, handicaps the

teacher in her efforts to provide the children with well balanced physical training activities. Inadequate provision of usable desks also makes it impossible for her to place every child in a seat suitable to his size, resulting in poor postures, cramped positions and other trying physical situations. A difficulty arising from the lack of means for filing school materials interferes with the efficiency of 28 per cent of the teachers.

Teachers Handicapped by Too Few Textbooks

The third difficulty is the serious one arising from the provision of insufficient quantities of textbooks and other reading materials by the school district. Both teachers and pupils suffer from inadequate supplies of this nature. Two items reported by 13 per cent of the group in each case add to the significance of the general problem. They are due to the lack of required textbooks which parents fail to purchase for their children and to the failure of the trustees to replace geographies which are out of date.

Under the fourth difficulty fall the problems which arise from the lack of adequate instructional supplies. The most common problems are due to insufficient material for seat work and to meager provision of materials for activity work. Another similar difficulty reported by 12 per cent of the teachers is caused by the arrival of the school supplies long after the school year starts.

In Table V are included the problems caused either by parents or by citizens. Some of the items constitute difficulties which teachers reported they had not been able to deal with satisfactorily. The outstanding one in this respect was the problem of getting parents to cooperate with the school, 46 per cent of the 24 teachers confronted with it having been unable to solve it. Forty-two per cent of the group having difficulty with the functioning of the parent-teacher association were not able to cope with it. Dissatisfaction was expressed by 38 per cent of the teachers regarding their solutions of each of two problems—irregularity of pupils' attendance and destruction of school property by outsiders.

Over 30 per cent of the groups of teachers reported as unsatisfactory their efforts to solve the following problems: meeting parental orders to children to remain indoors during recess; dealing with children permitted to remain up late at night; getting trustees to visit the school; teaching children suffering from lack of food and clothing, and meeting personal obligations until delayed salary checks arrived. Three other problems were checked as unsatisfactorily met by 27 per cent to 29 per cent of the respective groups of teachers reporting them. These difficulties were keeping

the building free from soot, getting parents to visit school and dealing with children regularly unclean in person and clothing.

An analysis of the items in Table V reveals the presence of three major problems. The most frequent one involves parents; the second involves the community; the third involves the school trustees.

The problem involving the parents results from their attitudes, activities, neglects and misconceptions. These factors often cause difficulties to arise in the teaching of their children. The detrimental influences can be seen in such items as unreadiness of pupils for school work due to lack of sleep; neglected poor eyesight of some children; fatigue of others due to undernourishment; parental disbelief in modern education. Additional items occurring with sufficient frequency to demand supervisory consideration are parents' failure to provide books although able to do so and parents' belief in whipping as an essential part of the school program.

Many parents interfere with the legal authority of teachers in various ways. Large numbers, for

TABLE V—PROBLEMS CAUSED BY PARENTS OR BY CITIZENS REPORTED BY RURAL TEACHERS

<i>Type of Problem</i>	<i>Teachers Reporting the Problem</i>
Teacher has to do janitor work	43
Parents forbid children to go outside at recess	39
Some pupils irregular in attendance	37
Children allowed to be up late nights	37
Difficulty in keeping building free from soot	37
Getting parents to visit school	35
Getting school trustees to visit school	34
Children's person and clothing not clean	33
Children lack sufficient food and clothing	30
Parents' poor English difficult to understand	27
Salary check not promptly delivered	26
Parents do not cooperate with the school	24
Children's poor eyesight uncared for by parents	24
Destruction of school property by outsiders	21
Parents uphold children in wrong doing	21
Unsafe drinking water	21
Parents dissatisfied with children's marks	20
Parent-teacher association does not function well	19
Ignorant, ill-tempered parents interfere	19
Children undernourished	19
Parents do not believe in modern teaching methods	18
Parents quarrel	18
Getting school board to see need of materials	18

example, forbid children to go outside at recess time or uphold their children in wrongdoing. Some ignorant, ill-tempered adults handicap the teachers in their work with children. Some parents refuse to cooperate in any way with their children's teachers.

Among the problems caused by questionable parental activity are some that are due also to inactivity, to parental negligence. To them should

be added others resulting solely from the failure of parents to visit the schools, and the shiftlessness of others in all matters. Two problems confronting the teachers arise from the existence of report cards. Quite frequently parents express dissatisfaction with their children's marks. Less often, but still in significant numbers, parents display a lack of understanding of the report cards.

The second major problem arises from conditions for which the community is largely responsible. Three problems have to do with situations which members of the community could correct if they would make the effort. These difficulties arise from the lack of sufficient food and clothing being provided for some children, the existence of unsafe drinking water in use at the school and the failure of the parent-teacher association to function efficiently. In some communities the effectiveness of the parent-teacher association meetings is spoiled by children's attending them unaccompanied by their parents. The meager educational facilities in some schools are further reduced because outsiders are not punished when they destroy school property.

Teachers Need Help in Meeting Problems

Some of these problems are also due to the failure of school trustees to meet their responsibilities. There are various other items which make the difficulty of dealing with the trustees the third major problem. These additional items are permitting teachers to do janitor work; keeping the building free from soot; failing to deliver salary check promptly; ignoring the teachers' requests for necessary instructional materials. In many communities the problems continue to exist because teachers have difficulty in getting the trustees to visit the school. Many other problems involving the poor or inadequate conditions of the school building, equipment and supplies, presented earlier in this article, are due in a large measure to the failure of both the school trustees and the citizens to meet their obligations in matters of education.

Only five personal problems were reported frequently by the teachers as causing them serious difficulty. Thirty-six teachers reported their habit of saying in class repeatedly, "All right"; 35 listed talking too much throughout the school day; and 30 were bothered by their habit of repeating pupils' answers. All three of these difficulties have to do with changing the teachers' habits of speaking in the classroom. The fourth and fifth most common personal problems are of an entirely different nature. Twenty-six of the 115 teachers complained of lack of social and professional contacts with other teachers. Twenty-four reported that they could not sing. Regarding the persistence of the

difficulties, the last mentioned one appeared to be the most serious one to overcome. Forty-six per cent of the teachers reporting it indicated that they had found no satisfactory solution for meeting the situation. With respect to the other four items, few teachers were dissatisfied with their efforts to cope with them.

Several other less frequently reported personal items are of such a serious nature that they should be included in the presentation. Fourteen per cent of the teachers reported that they had received the wrong type of normal school training for the position they held in rural schools. Eleven per cent confessed that they were unfamiliar with the content of textbooks they suddenly found themselves required to use.

The analysis of all the problems leads, in conclusion, to important considerations for the various rural school officers. They imply administrative responsibilities that require the attention of county superintendents of schools and principals of rural schools. Public relations, school organization, teaching personnel, student personnel and school supplies are the phases of administration that cover primarily all problems of rural teachers requiring the administrators' attention. All rural supervisory offices are obligated professionally to aid teachers in solving major types of problems of instruction, classroom management and pupil behavior. These supervisors should ascertain the many and specific difficulties of individual teachers and should guide them, through the use of sound supervisory techniques, in developing skill to meet the situations.

No One Method of Subtraction Is Superior

Research studies indicate clearly that no one method of subtraction stands out as superior, it is pointed out by Blanche M. Allen in her master's thesis, Boston University School of Education. School children are confused in subtraction because of the many different methods taught in the schools. Therefore, a questionnaire investigation was made of present practice as a possible basis of agreement. Four hundred questionnaires were returned from twenty-three state departments of education, 162 cities and 215 normal schools and teachers' colleges.

It was found that the take away method is used nearly three times as often as the additive; the borrowing plan is used two and a half times as often as the equal additions; and the upward form is used six times as often as the downward.

Why a Combined Gymnasium Stage Handicaps the School Program

When a school building is designed provision should be made for a wide range of extracurricular activities for the pupils

By O. H. WEISS, Newport News High School, Newport News, Va.

FOR the past ten years I have directed the staging of all plays given by the Newport News High School, Newport News, Va., and have supervised the stage work for all productions given or sponsored by local community organizations and presented on the high school stage. These productions vary from simple concerts to plays and dance recitals requiring as many as five changes of scenery.

Our stage is the largest in the city, and is available to these organizations at a price that barely covers the cost of light, fuel and janitorial services. Our auditorium was designed with the combination gymnasium stage. I wish to call the attention

of executives and school boards to some of the disadvantages that I have found exist in such a combination.

I do not need to emphasize the value of providing for a wide range of extracurricular activities for high school pupils. Since public speaking and dramatics, next to athletics, are two of the most popular of extracurricular activities, it at once becomes evident that a properly constructed and equipped stage is a necessary adjunct to any progressive high school.

The combination gymnasium stage may be desirable for the small community, but for a city of 25,000 or more it is poor economy. In support of



An oblique view of the setting for "House Party," a play given on the stage of the Newport News High School.

this statement I shall cite a few of our experiences with such an arrangement.

In the school year everything generally moves along smoothly until after Christmas. The interest of the community is centered on football until after Thanksgiving. There are usually not more than one or two outside entertainments that require the stage between Thanksgiving and Christmas. These generally do not cause much interference with the school program. It is not until after Christmas that the fun really starts. The basketball season begins immediately after the Christmas holidays and lasts until early spring. We

uating class needs the stage as much as possible during January to practice commencement speeches and the class play. If the basketball team has the stage two nights out of the week, that leaves a possible four nights for other activities. Of these four nights, at least one can be counted on for some outside production and it has been our experience that the average runs higher than that.

At times the stage is occupied for several consecutive nights, by some outside organization. The school cannot count on having the stage for more than two evenings a week to practice for school



Pupils of one of the elementary schools of Newport News who gave an operetta on the high school stage.

usually have our worst weather during that time of the year which makes it necessary for the gym classes to be conducted in the gymnasium (on the stage). During this period also the dramatic productions are at their height. Aside from the dramatic activities of the school, there are music recitals, lectures and plays given by outside organizations, which often require the use of the stage. The basketball coach wants the gymnasium every afternoon for basketball practice; if he is to turn out a winning team, he cannot do with much less. Then he will need it at least two nights a week for games. If the school is organized on the semester basis, as most city schools are, the February grad-

plays, public speaking contests and commencement exercises. Immediately following graduation it is necessary to start practice for the spring play usually given by the drama classes. Conditions remain the same during February as they were in January. In order to produce a good play it is essential that practice be conducted at least five times a week. Furthermore, the practice must be held on the stage where the play is to be enacted.

Now let us consider the demands for the stage during school hours. Before the beginning of a semester the high school administration works out a schedule whereby all regular school activities may have the necessary time for their work with-



The setting for "The Queen's Husband," presented on the high school stage by the drama classes of the school.

out any conflict. These activities consist of regular gymnasium work for boys and girls, voice tests, and try-outs for public speaking and school plays. It is the outside production that plays havoc with the school schedule. When these productions require the use of the stage during the day, the gym classes that are scheduled for that time must necessarily either be conducted out of doors or be abandoned.

At one time a cooking school was sponsored by the local newspaper, which occupied the stage for four consecutive days. While without doubt this was an educational project, the primary object was advertising certain brands of food. While

other productions may occupy but a single day, that day may be the one day in a month that some special school activity is scheduled to use the stage. On one occasion we had to postpone an examination in gym work in order that an outside organization might have the stage. Furthermore, there have been times when a gym class has been able to have only two periods of actual work in a whole month.

Some may suggest that the problem could be solved by the use of a rolling curtain or partition separating the stage from the gymnasium, thus making it possible to conduct a gym class on the stage and a class in public speaking in the auditorium; or that classes in public speaking may be



One of the scenes from "Little Old New York."

in session while the stage is being set for or is being used by an outside organization. This arrangement has been tried in a number of schools and has proved impracticable. Such a rolling partition acts only as a sounding board to transmit and often to magnify the noises that may be produced on one side of it.

Then again there is the stage manager's side of the question, namely, stage setting. Let us assume that some outside organization has rented the high school auditorium for a three-act play requiring two or three sets of scenery. For example, let us assume that they have the stage on Wednesday evening for dress rehearsal. If practice is to start at 7 p.m. the stage force must start work immediately after school. The basketball coach will contend that his team must practice at least an hour, so the stage force must wait until his men have finished. The director of the play has been told that he may have the auditorium from 7 to 11 p.m. He naturally assumes that everything will be ready for him to start rehearsing at 7, and when he arrives at 6:30 and finds the stage only partly set and is told furthermore that the set will not be ready for him until 8:30 or 9, he feels that he has not had a square deal.

Much Time Is Wasted

Although the stage force may have done a remarkable piece of work in getting the stage ready as quickly as they did, nevertheless, they will be criticized for holding up the rehearsal, and instead of the cast being ready to leave at 11 o'clock, they frequently practice until 11:30 or 12. The stage must be cleared after rehearsal, thus making it 12:30 or 1 a. m. before the stage force are through with their work. You may say that the school auditorium should not be rented to community organizations. My answer to that is that the school should be a community center.

When the stage is in use all day for gym work and every afternoon for basketball practice, it is necessary to set the stage for a dress rehearsal after basketball practice, making it difficult to give the necessary attention to minor details. Again, after dress rehearsal is over, the stage must be cleared of all scenery, borders must be moved for basketball practice, and everything must be put in perfect order for the gym classes of the next day. Then the whole procedure must be repeated after basketball practice on the day of the performance.

The same thing holds true when plays are given by the school. When short plays are given in the assembly, it is necessary to make the setting simple, so that it can be put up before school and then be removed, and the stage cleared quickly for the gym classes.

School Economy Sought Through Shorter Terms

To bring about greater economy in public school administration, the possibility of shortening the required number of years for elementary training is again before state and local superintendents of education, according to information made available recently at the U. S. Office of Education.

Seven states and two cities have adopted the seven-year program of elementary plan with four-year secondary training, including junior high school plans in many places. Although the eleven-year elementary and secondary period is not altogether new, its advantages from an economical point of view over the twelve-year period in vogue in the rest of the country no doubt will be scrutinized with increasing interest, it was explained.

Has Worked Well in Salt Lake City

Where the eleven-year plan operates, no significant educational disadvantage appears to have arisen, and on the contrary, in Salt Lake City, George N. Child, superintendent of schools, lists this innovation as a distinct economy.

Although the office of education makes no suggestion in reference to the continuation of the old plan or the adoption of the new, Georgia, Louisiana, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Texas and Virginia have organized most of their schools on the seven-year elementary basis. Kansas City, Mo., has been on the seven-year elementary school program for many years.

Superintendent Child points out in his annual report that since the inauguration of the eleven-year plan, graduates have been watched closely to see if the shortening of the elementary period of training has caused any intellectual handicap after their entrance to college. In appraising the system in Salt Lake City, Mr. Child submits the following statement which will be of interest to administrators elsewhere:

"The purpose of the change from a twelve to an eleven-year program above the kindergarten was, of course, in the interests of saving time and money without lowering the standards of scholarship of the graduates from the high school.

"The records in the university show that the graduates of high schools in Salt Lake City rate considerably above the average of all freshman students in the institution. It is encouraging to note also that the students who graduated from the eleven-year course average a little above the group graduating from the twelve-year course, indicating that standards of scholarship were adequately maintained in the first class which graduated under the new plan."

It Pays to Be Frank With the Taxpayer, But—

Publicity to be legitimate should be inexpensive, simple, accurate, economically sound and dignified, and should not bear the imprint of the propagandist

By HAROLD E. AKERLY, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Rochester, N. Y.

POSSIBLY no practical problem faces the school administrator more squarely than that of legitimate publicity. With the economic situation as it is and with an even heavier tax burden to be carried than previously as the result of various forms of "relief," many a school system needs to place before its taxpayers a stronger case than has heretofore been necessary, or suffer a reduction in appropriations.

Of course, the independent school district with power to tax may not sense this condition as immediately as the dependent school district which must receive its appropriations at the hands of a mayor, council, board of apportionment or some regulative body set up by the state. While it is not safe to generalize without accurate statistics it is probably not far from the truth to say that the financing of public education in our larger cities is harder to accomplish this year than at any time in the last decade.

How Shall Curtailment Demands Be Met?

There are obvious reasons for this situation, such as the taxation of real estate in some communities almost to the point of confiscation; the perfected organization of tax leagues and business groups; the construction of school buildings of such beauty and size as to raise in good faith the question of extravagance; the fact that more adequate salaries are paid city teachers, which removes an emotional appeal of the past; the need of large amounts of public money for employment and poor relief. To these should be added, of course, the major factor, the international economic situation which seems to revitalize the age-old tax question.

How, in addition to exercising every possible economy, shall boards of education meet the demand for curtailment which comes seemingly from all sides? With legitimate publicity, is one general answer. With sound and simple financial publicity,

is a more specific answer. This means of silencing the loose talking critic, the prejudiced or bigoted fault-finder, is even more effective with the fair-minded but questioning taxpayers who today far outnumber the others. These men and women are at heart friendly toward education. They have children in school, yet they cannot interpret the mushroom growth of educational costs other than in terms of extravagance, of incompetence, of luxury and of polite indifference to public thought.

"The Finest in the Land"

The data for this common type of criticism as applied to public education are supplied by newspaper headlines, or possibly, by a feature article headed, "Jonesboro High to Be Finest in Land," or even by a newspaper editorial. The body of the news article may not support the heading, Jonesboro's high school may be only an "also ran" beside Lane Technical, Milwaukee Continuation, De Witt Clinton or Cass Technical; the editorial may be based on a speech made by an opinionated gentleman at a tax hearing, but the damage is done unless more trustworthy and more intelligent educational publicity is made readily accessible to the average citizen.

To make known to parents, to socially minded leaders and to the great rank and file the essential economic facts of the local school system is a duty imposed on the board of education, not by the law, perhaps, but as an implied public trust. But publicity to be legitimate should be inexpensive, simple, accurate, economically sound and dignified. It must not bear the imprint of the press agent or the hall-mark of the propagandist. It should be as high class as the output of the public relations counsel of corporations of first rank. To every school district the opportunity for this type of publicity is offered in the preparation of the annual budget.

In New York State, for example, an annual financial report is required. To make this attrac-

tive and to combine it with the budget of the ensuing year so that the whole financial story is told briefly but effectively is a form of publicity the legitimacy of which is hardly open to question. While the budget does not serve as a defense for the curriculum or for the employment of married teachers, and does not apply balm to many other of the ever present tender spots in school administration, it does meet the largest part of the current criticism of public education which is based on economic grounds, no matter what form it seems to take.

The Rochester Budget Plan

Four years ago the board of education of Rochester, N. Y., decided to place a copy of its estimated financial needs or budget for the ensuing year, that of 1928, in the hands of every interested taxpayer at the same time that it transmitted the budget officially to the city council for approval. Sixty thousand copies were printed at a cost of approximately \$1,200. It consisted of twelve pages, 8½ by 11 inches, printed with care on white eighty-pound machine finished stock. A copy was sent to the home of each school child by the oldest child of the family. Principals supplied copies to interested persons in the community; the chamber of commerce and public libraries were given large quantities for distribution, and several hundred copies were mailed directly to civic leaders. The cost, 2¼ cents a copy delivered, was never questioned.

Printing Cost Has Been Kept Low

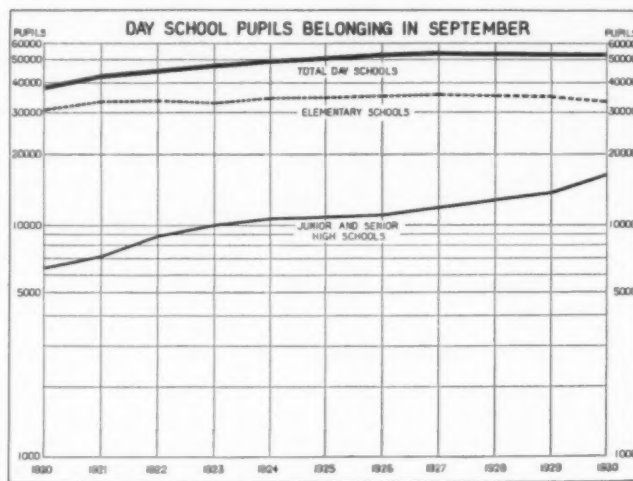
The 1928 budget showed in tabulation and chart the growth of the school population in the preceding ten years. In similar manner it analyzed current income and expenditures for a ten-year period. Then it gave in detail, one type of expenditure to a page, the cost of administration, instruction, auxiliary agencies, operation, maintenance, fixed charges, capital outlay and debt service. A chart drawn on logarithmic paper showed for each item the actual expenditures for a ten-year period and the percentage of total current expenditure devoted to each major function. The last page was devoted to a discussion of the "Pay as You Go Policy" which had been adopted some five years earlier, but which was coming under fire from persons in official life more interested in the solution of immediate fiscal problems than in the ultimate cost of school construction.

Succeeding budgets which have followed annually have adhered to the same basic plan. They have grown from twelve to sixteen pages, the paper is better, half-tone illustrations of proposed schools are used and there are other refinements, but the cost has been held to three cents a copy.

The arrangement of the budget is as follows:
Page 1—Title and invitation to parents and taxpayers to question or criticize.

Page 2—A full-page perspective of a proposed school building.

Page 3—A discussion of the budget request in comparison with preceding costs and budgets, a

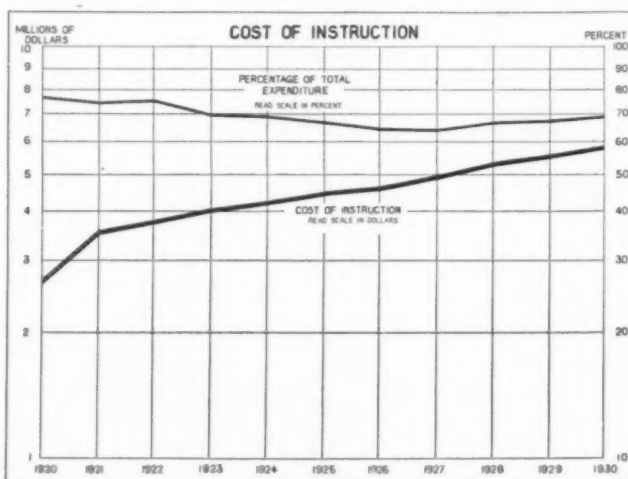


statement of the resulting tax rate and a prediction as to the general trend of educational costs.

Page 4—An analysis of revenues by sources for a ten-year period expressed both in amount and percentage.

Page 5—An analysis of expenditures by function for a ten-year period expressed both in amount and percentage.

Pages 6-13—Analyses, illustrated with charts, of the cost of major functions (one to a page) during a four-year period in comparison with the



budget item for each function for the coming year.

Page 14—The budget for capital expenditures.

Page 15—Discussion and tabulation of pupil population.

On the first page or cover is this single announcement: "This includes both the current expense budget and the budget for building and

sites for the calendar year of 1931. It is presented to the taxpayers of Rochester for suggestions and criticisms. At the same time it is being sent to the city council for approval. Questions concerning the budget will be gladly answered." While this statement means exactly what it says it will be no surprise to an experienced school administrator to learn that but few questions and fewer suggestions come from those who read it. On the other hand, it serves a useful purpose in conveying to the people the earnest desire of the board of education, for intelligent public participation in the major problems of school administration.

To secure as far as possible the direct participation of parents and the interest of all taxpayers in the administration of the schools the board of education in Rochester is making clear that, within the limits of state law, the citizens of the community are entitled to just as good schools as they are willing to pay for. And further, wherever the opportunity is afforded, parents and other taxpayers are told that it is the duty of the board of education to ascertain, as far as possible, the desires of the people and intelligently to reflect them in the administration of the schools.

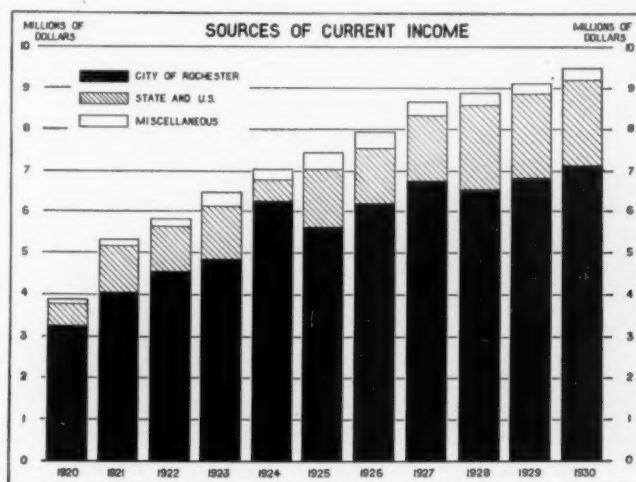
Budget Gives Gross Costs

The first page of reading matter in the Rochester budget is usually a discussion of the cost of public education and what it means to the taxpayers. On this page the board puts its best foot forward without sacrificing either accuracy or sound economics. For example, a comparison is frequently made between the budget requested and the expenditures made in preceding years. Likewise, the tax rate that would result from the proposed budget is compared by means of tabulation and chart with the tax rates during the last decade. The page usually closes with words of caution similar to the following: "To the person who studies this budget with care two words of caution must be said: all costs given are gross costs, for example, year by year lunchroom receipts offset lunchroom costs; likewise, rental receipts largely offset expenditures for textbooks. Then, too, it should be noted in reading the charts that, with the exception of the one on this page and on page 4, all of the charts are drawn on special paper so that the slope of the line always represents the rate of increase or decrease."

The use of gross costs and the use of logarithmic paper were carefully considered, a final decision being reached that nothing should stand in the way of the budget being as clear as possible. Anyone schooled in municipal finance knows that gross expenditures cannot be juggled while net costs can be so used in a budget as to cover up a multitude of expenditures. This, however, is a whole story in

itself. As every reader knows, likewise, a line drawn on logarithmic paper tells the true story while a line on ordinary coordinate paper may or may not. That is to say, in general, the thinking person is much more interested in the rate of increase or decrease in expenditures than in the actual amount of the expenditure at any one time.

Current income is next explained largely through an analysis of the sources. The bar chart has been used with the primary intent of showing how effectively the state has come to the rescue of the local community in recent years, so that the contribution by local taxpayers has increased relatively but little in the last six years. No one in the schools is enough of an optimist, however, to believe that even as plain and simple a chart as the one used can persuade a taxpayer with a radically reduced income that his taxes have not materially



increased. Nevertheless, it has served a useful purpose.

The analysis presented of current expenditure, or day by day running expenses, is more interesting in the tabulation than in the chart which is a simple curve. The tabulation, on the other hand, is the most valuable in the entire budget as a source of reference as it traces in thousands of dollars the cost of each major item of expenditure over a ten-year period. If also shows a percentage distribution of current expenditure in the same ten-year period for each of the major items.

After eight pages devoted to the analysis of the standard items of current expenditure the three last are devoted respectively to the building and site budget, pupil population and an analysis of three or four of the most important financial matters which have affected the schools in the immediate past or may be present in the coming year. This last page presents an unparalleled opportunity to get before the people in simple language answers to questions that are being continually raised. For example, the question of teachers' sal-

aries was handled one year in about nine lines.

In reading the following statement, which is quoted, one should know that the city administration was presenting its budget with the statement that no salary increases whatsoever were to be allowed during the year 1930. The board of education stated its position as follows: "During the year 1930 no changes in salary schedules for teaching positions were made. Adjustments in salaries were made on the basis approved by the board of education in the spring of 1929, as described in last year's budget. During the coming year, and before publication, a thorough review of all rules and regulations affecting salaries will be made. No significant changes are contemplated."

The three other topics covered on the last page are unit costs, which showed a reduction in junior and senior high schools during the last four years; "Pay-as-You-Go," in which the board of education again stated its belief in that method of financing; and the civic orchestra, in which a contract with the Rochester Civic Orchestra is explained.

There is no intention of criticizing here the traditional budget either directly or by implication. This article merely attempts to tell the story of an experiment in selling the financial aspects of a school system involving some fifty thousand pupils to the taxpayers who support it. Undoubtedly there are communities in which it might not be advisable to adopt the methods employed in preparing the Rochester budget. Yet it is believed that it is possible for each school district of any fair size to make its budget clear, interesting and reliable, so as to render harmless, ill-informed attacks on school costs, and to reduce intelligent criticism of the school expenditures to a factual basis.

The Single Salary Schedule—How It Functions in Practice

Does the single salary schedule attract better trained teachers? Can it hold efficient teachers? Does it rapidly boost current expense for teachers' salaries? Is there a decided improvement, professionally, of teachers while in service under it? Does it add to the esprit de corps? In short, does a single salary schedule operate successfully in actual practice? This problem is discussed in the recent book by Rosewell P. Bowles, "The Operation and Effects of a Single Salary Schedule," published by the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.

The author shows that better prepared teachers were secured, both in the case of new teachers and those who had remained in the school system from

the beginning of the single salary schedule. The differentiation of teachers on the basis of initial preparation and continued study guaranteed them higher returns for increased investment in training. There was a decided professional improvement of teachers while in service. Since teacher placement on the salary schedule was predetermined by training, with future salary increments based on tangible grounds, the administrator was provided with an objective basis for use in deciding upon a teacher's worth and rate of advancement in salary. Elementary teachers were given due professional recognition. Teachers were assigned to grades or subjects to which they were best adapted by ability and training, and could continue in those assignments under conditions conducive to a financial success equal to that of other teachers in the school system.

No More Expensive to Operate

Dignifying the position of the elementary teacher and eliminating salary differentiation on the basis of grades taught probably contributed to the reduction in annual teacher turnover. This increased stabilization of the teaching staff would serve as an aid in the enforcement of consistent educational policies. By decreasing the distinctions between the school divisions and paying teachers in accordance with their training and successful experience, the single salary schedule contributed to a feeling of unity and solidarity among the teaching staff.

On the whole, the single salary schedule was shown to be no more expensive to operate than the regular salary schedule with which it was compared. Whether such a relationship would hold indefinitely is not known. It certainly would not if the teachers in both school systems were all at the maximum or all receiving the higher salaries, but such a situation is not likely to arise when the age, training and experience of the teachers have a wide spread.

The single salary schedule seemed to provide attractive differentials in salary for teachers with unequal amounts of training. Teachers with higher training were being attracted to the school system, while those originally possessing the lower training were securing the higher training on their own initiative.

While the author concludes that the single salary schedule operated successfully in the case studied, he does not claim that a similar schedule inaugurated in another school system under a different administrator would produce the same results. He recognizes that the policy of administration and the type of administrator are factors strongly influencing successful operation.

A Woodwork Program That Produced Good Results

Furniture for use in the classroom, miniature theaters, model houses that were completely furnished and a wide variety of toys were among the articles made by these elementary pupils

By GEORGIA DAVIS, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Richmond, Ind.

ELEMENTARY school children in Richmond, Ind., from the kindergarten through the third grade made much use of wood during the school year 1931-32 in connection with the activities in which they were engaged. The articles made from wood were divided into two types: (1) furniture to be used by the pupils in their everyday life in the classroom, and (2) articles made in connection with a project on which the entire group was working.

The pupils were greatly interested in furniture making, and the list of articles they made included bookcases, chairs, stools, reading tables, a flag standard, screens, flower boxes, cupboards, book-racks, easels, a Christmas tree box, a bulletin board, a pedestal for flowers and a fern stand.

Not all the classrooms made furniture, of course, nor did all the classrooms make the same articles. The amount of furniture made and the kinds made were determined entirely by the current need. A classroom that needed a bookrack made one, and a classroom that needed a reading table and chairs provided themselves with these articles by making them.

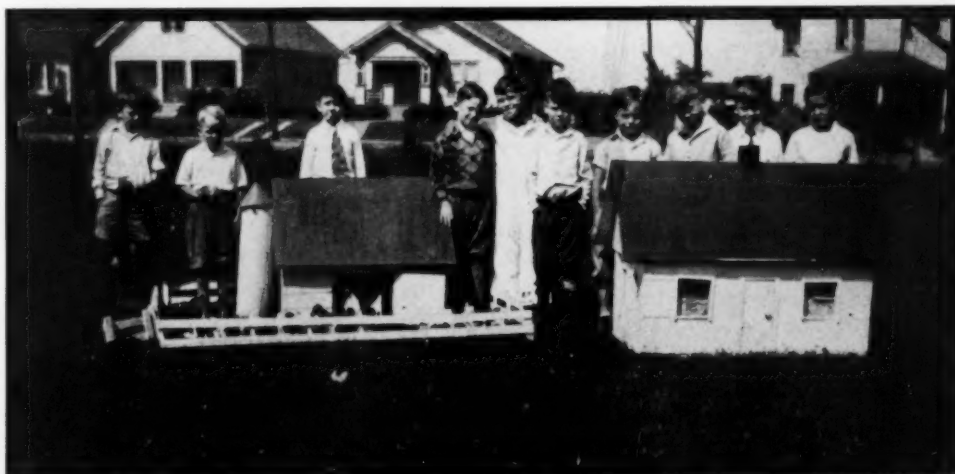
Much of the furniture was made from orange crates which the pupils brought in from the neigh-

borhood grocery stores and fruit stores. Some sawed lumber of soft pine and basswood was supplied for table tops, for easel boards, for easel and table legs and for the flag standard. One group, however, used orange crates sawed in half for the legs of their library table. The orange crates made good bookshelves.

What Can Be Done With Orange Crates

The pupils designed the furniture and made the plans for cutting the boxes to suit the designs. It is surprising the great variety in chairs that can be achieved from orange boxes when elementary school pupils begin to make designs. After the necessary sawing and nailing were completed, the wood was made smooth with sandpaper. It was found that No. 1/2 sandpaper works well on the rough wood used for orange crates. After the furniture was perfectly smooth it was painted and decorated. The pupils had some delightful times choosing the colors and decorations. This gave them valuable experience in color and decorative designs. Many colors were used. The pupils showed a preference for bright colors in their choice of paint. Blue, light green and orange were their favorite colors. An attempt was made to

These buildings in a farm project were made by 1A and 1B pupils. The toy animals in the barnyard are also products of the pupils' wood working skill.





Toy making was one of the most popular projects in the woodwork activity program. The toys shown here were all made from wood by pupils in the 2A grade.

help the pupils understand the need to choose a tint that would harmonize with the room in which the furniture was to be used.

The study of decorations for the furniture was interesting. Some groups wanted no decoration at all; some wanted animals, children at play or schoolroom activities to be used as decorations. Other groups wanted more formal designs. The scheme of decoration was usually placed in the hands of a committee who presented its plan to the entire group for discussion. The furniture was painted with oil paint, although a water color paint covered with clear shellac has also been found satisfactory.

All of the furniture making was cooperative. Groups of pupils often worked together in sand-papering or in painting a single piece of furniture.

The furniture was used throughout the school year. The pupils were proud of their work and

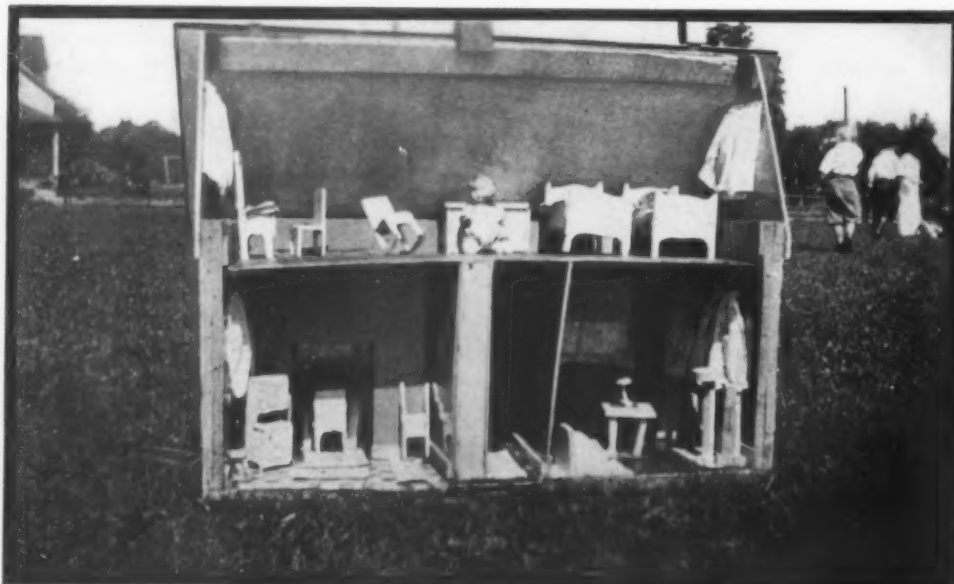
took good care of the furniture. In many cases it can be used another year.

Some of the pupils in whose classrooms furniture was made were inspired to try their hands at it outside of school. One third grade boy, for example, made a table and four chairs for his little sister, and a second grade girl made a bookcase for her room at home.

Boxes Used to Make Houses

The articles made from wood in connection with projects carried on in the classroom were many and varied.

In some first grades the house was made in connection with a study of the home. In a few classrooms the house was built large enough for the pupils to enter. In such instances the furniture described above was used to furnish the house. In many classrooms, however, the house was small



Inside view of a house made by a first grade group. Its roof is hinged. The furniture was all made and designed by the school children.

These 3B pupils are unquestionably deeply interested in the toy making project at hand. Girls as well as boys learn how to use tools and how to express their ideas.



enough to be set on a table. The various houses were quite different. Some were a bungalow type with wide porches; others were a two-story type with a stairway leading to the second floor. On some houses the roof was hinged so that it could be lifted off, in some cases one side of the house was left off and in other cases one side of the house was hinged so that it could be opened. Most of the houses were built of wood. A box or two was used in most cases as a beginning. The roof and porches were then added and the windows and doors cut out.

The furniture, too, varied greatly depending entirely upon the house and the wishes of the pupils. It was made chiefly from blocks of soft pine or basswood, easy to saw and hammer. Some pieces of furniture were made from small boxes brought in by the pupils. The pupils planned the

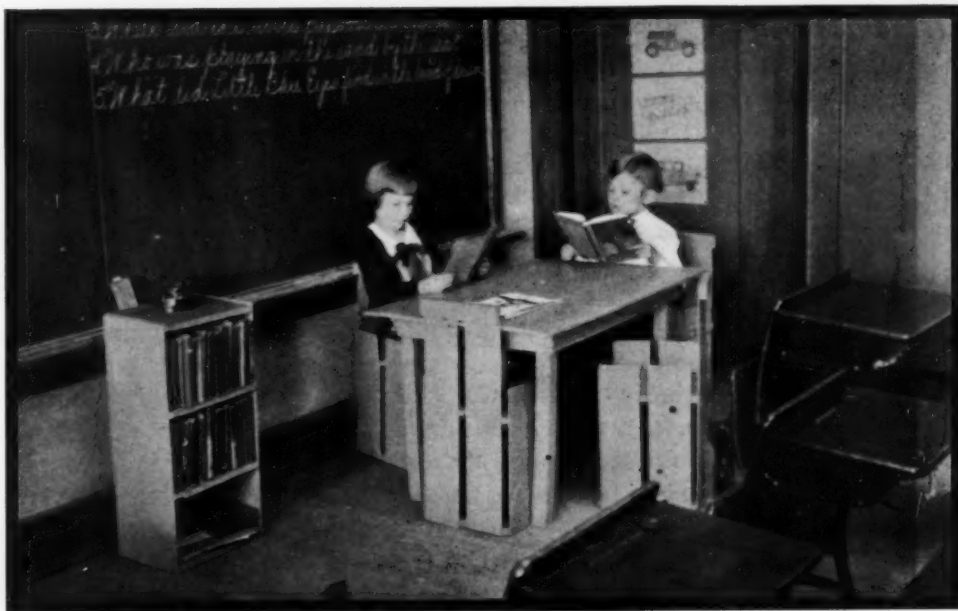
wall paper and floor covering. They made the curtains for the windows and molded the bathroom furniture from clay. Such a project gives pupils an opportunity to study color, design, proportion, suitable furniture and suitable home decoration.

Toy Making Was Popular

The small theater and the puppet show were popular with some groups. The show boxes in most cases were made large enough for good sized scenery and stage fixtures. A third grade class made a puppet show in connection with its study of Indian life. Another group used a stage to set up scenes illustrating the stories read in its literature period.

A popular project involving a good deal of woodwork was the making of toys. The reasons why pupils wanted to make toys were many. One toy

A group of 2B pupils made the table, bookrack and chairs shown in this picture. The furniture was used in the classroom.



shop grew out of an excursion; one group made toys for the children in a day nursery; another group made toys for smaller children at home or in the neighborhood.

Care must be taken in the choice of materials for toys. A hard, thin wood splits easily and children become discouraged if the toy breaks in the making or cannot be used when it is finished. Quarter-inch soft pine or basswood cuts easily with a coping saw. Pressed wood is good. Many toys can be made from small boxes brought in by the pupils. Wheels are an important item in making toys. Wooden wheels from one inch to six inches in diameter can be bought or they can be made from dowels. One second grade boy brought wheels made from steel that had been cut in his father's factory. These proved satisfactory for the animal toys that the pupils mounted on wheels. Oil paint comes in bright colors and is easy to put on. If it is covered with a clear shellac, the surface will stay smooth and bright. The following are a few of the types of toys that the pupils made: animals on wheels, airplanes, doll furniture, wagons, tricks on strings and carts.

Tools Must Be Selected Carefully

The toys made of wood constituted only a part, of course, of all the toys made during the time toy making was the classroom project.

The interest in making things from wood in the classroom led to much leisure time activity outside of school. Many first grade pupils made houses at home.

The choice of tools for elementary pupils is a difficult problem. The tools must be small enough for the children to use easily and at the same time must be of material that will stand the wear of daily use by inexperienced hands. We have found the following tools satisfactory: a 13-ounce flat-headed nail hammer; a 20-inch, 9-point hand saw; a 9-inch jack plane; a 4-inch movable vise; an 8-inch-sweep ratchet brace; $\frac{3}{8}$ -inch, $\frac{5}{8}$ -inch and $\frac{7}{8}$ -inch auger bits; $\frac{6}{16}$ -inch, $\frac{8}{16}$ -inch and $\frac{14}{16}$ -inch Socket firmer chisels; a deep-back coping saw frame; 6-inch pin end coping saw blades; $2\frac{1}{2}$ -inch, 3-inch and 4-inch C clamps, and a try-square.

Project Was Successful

Many teachers have expressed doubt as to whether elementary pupils can work successfully with wood. Our experience has been that they can. The pupils of the elementary grades have had a great deal of success and real enjoyment from their woodwork. We shall have no further hesitancy in giving elementary pupils an opportunity to try their hands at working with wood when the need for it arises.

Look Your Gift Horse in the Mouth

By WARD A. SHOEMAKER

Research Associate, Teachers College, Columbia University

A man in Connecticut willed \$600,000 for a school "free to the inhabitants" of the town. The will provided that no children from a Catholic parochial school should be admitted to said free school, and further, that no teacher or scholar "shall under any condition be admitted who shall use tobacco in any form or spirituous liquors as a beverage."

How would you, as a superintendent, like to administer a donation with such strings attached to it?

Nine Tests for Donations to Pass

One donated school building has on the third floor a memorial room, totally unusable for school purposes, which is to be there "for ever." This room is adorned with family pictures and relics, and must be opened at certain times for public inspection and visitation.

These instances and many others are cited by William R. Odell, Teachers College, Columbia University in his recently published book "Gifts to the Public Schools." Mr. Odell warns boards of education and superintendents that all donations to schools should pass nine tests before being totally acceptable, as follows:

1. General rather than specific restrictions should be used in stating the purposes to which the income from a donation may be applied.
2. No attempt should be made to restrict the personal liberties of individuals who are connected with institutions to which donations are made.
3. School officials should help guide any planning for buildings and for equipment.
4. Recognition of a benefactor should be so devised as to dignify rather than to bring criticism upon him.
5. Funds should not undergo a long period of enforced accumulation before the first expenditure can be made.
6. A donation should be flexible so that it can be transferred from one administrative organization to another if the need arises.
7. Restricting donations according to governmental boundaries or units should be avoided.
8. Provisions should be made which make easy later participation by other persons or groups in the support of the activities which are established by a donation.
9. The source of revenue to meet the burdens of support which accompany or result from a donation should be carefully determined in advance of the acceptance of a donation.

Colleges Make Big Strides in School Administrator Training

Ten years ago the fifty colleges and universities represented in this study offered a total of 393 courses in educational administration. Today they offer 1,026 courses

By FELIX HELMUTH ULLRICH, Brackenridge Senior High School, San Antonio, Tex.

THE beginning of this century marked the first university course offered in public school administration and supervision, according to I. L. Kandel.¹ A glance at the courses listed under school administration in the latest catalogues of the major universities and colleges reveals a great variety of special studies.

Kandel summarizes the rise of professional training when he says: "The quarter-century just past has been a great creative period in our work. . . . By 1905 we clearly note the beginnings of a distinct change. . . . In administration the single course of a quarter a century ago has been expanded into a large division. . . ." Bulletin No. 19 of the U. S. Office of Education, published in 1927, reveals that there is a growing tendency in many states to require certificates for administration and supervision as well as for various types of teaching. In view of this, colleges of education need to provide opportunity for prospective school administrators to secure the professional training demanded. Fred Engelhardt, in his recent book, calls attention to the fact that "colleges of education in the universities are in a position today to offer as significant a training for the profession of educational administration as other professional colleges are to offer preparation for business administration, engineering, law or medicine."²

Fifty Representative Institutions Studied

This investigation shows that the higher institutions of learning have not been idle in providing bountiful opportunities for the professional training of school administrative officers.

In this study the number and variety of courses offered by representative universities and colleges today are compared to the number and variety of courses offered by the same institutions ten years

ago. The study reveals the new courses offered during the last decade and also shows which of the older courses have received the greatest emphasis.

The names of the various courses offered in educational administration were taken from the catalogues containing the 1921-22 and 1931-32 announcements. Data from the catalogues of sixty-two institutions were tabulated, and from these the fifty institutions that appeared most representative as teacher training institutions were selected. In 1930-31 thirty-nine of these institutions conferred a total of 9,166 degrees with a major in education.³

How the Data Were Tabulated

The courses were classified according to their title and course description. In a number of cases the catalogue description determined its classification under a heading different from that suggested by the title of the course. This study includes all graduate and undergraduate courses offered in educational administration with the following exceptions: courses offered during the summer term; correspondence courses; courses offered in extension; thesis courses; courses pertaining to the administration of vocational schools, physical education, nursery schools and special schools; courses in part-time education, adult education and administration of tests and measurements; courses listed as not given in 1921-22 and 1931-32, and general introductory courses in education. Those listed as being offered in alternate years were included. No attempt was made to reduce the various credit values to a common term. Where the same course was offered each quarter or each semester it was counted as one course. Courses that were designated as being advanced courses were counted separately. In a few cases a major course in school administration covered a variety of administrative

¹Kandel, I. L., *Twenty-Five Years of American Education*, 1924, chap. 7.

²Engelhardt, Fred, *Public School Organization and Administration*, 1931, p. 110.

³Supplement to the Bulletin of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars, Oct., 1931.

subjects. Such a course was counted as one course and tabulated as school administration. The word administration as used in the accompanying tables means all those courses that are not curriculum or supervision courses. The phrase school administration represents a common name for all courses of that title or of a similar title. Educational administration refers to all courses included in this study.

Educational Statistics a Popular Course

The number and variety of courses offered at the beginning and end of the decade are shown in Table I. It may be noted that, as far as the number of courses offered is concerned, educational statistics received the greatest emphasis. The num-

ber of courses offered in this subject was 15 in 1921-22, and 46 in 1931-32. Courses in educational guidance increased from 1 to 29; extracurricular activities from 1 to 28; school finance from 5 to 29; curriculum construction from 1 to 23; research in education from 11 to 32, and junior high school curriculum from 14 to 35. Courses in junior college administration, school administration, supervision of instruction, high school supervision, university and college administration, elementary curriculum, high school curriculum and business administration also showed comparatively large increases. Experimental education was the only course that showed a decrease. The course descriptions of these courses revealed that instead of being actually dropped from the course of study,

TABLE I—COURSES OFFERED IN ADMINISTRATION, CURRICULUM AND SUPERVISION IN 1921-22 AND 1931-32, IN FIFTY UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES

Types of Courses	Number of Courses In-			Types of Courses	Number of Courses In-		
	1921-22	1931-32	crease		1921-22	1931-32	crease
Administration				Seminar in Secondary Education	7	18	11
School Administration	58	80	22	High School Administration	25	39	14
Personnel Administration	1	12	11	Seminar in High School Administration	1	4	3
Business Management	2	16	14	Junior High School Administration	20	40	20
School Buildings	4	14	10	Elementary School Administration	12	27	15
School Buildings and Equipment	0	7	7	Elementary School Problems	2	11	9
School Survey	13	21	8	Seminar in Elementary Education	5	12	7
Library Administration	1	3	2	Rural School Administration	12	13	1
Educational Guidance	1	29	28	Rural School Education	10	14	4
Advising Girls	2	15	13	Seminar in Rural Education	0	5	5
Deans of Boys and Girls	0	5	5	"Others"	0	11	11
Experimental Education	10	2	8 ¹	Total (Administration)	320	778	458
Platoon School	0	4	4	Median	6.4	15.56	9.16
School Finance	5	29	24	Curriculum			
School Support	1	4	3	Curriculum Organization and Administration	7	8	1
Extracurricular Activities	1	28	27	Curriculum Construction	1	23	22
School Publicity	2	5	3	Curriculum Problems	1	4	3
Child Accounting	1	11	10	Seminar in Curriculum	0	8	8
Educational Statistics	15	46	31	Secondary School Curriculum	3	14	11
School Laws	2	9	7	High School Curriculum	9	25	16
Problems in Education	8	10	2	Junior High School Curriculum	0	4	4
Problems in School Administration	4	14	10	Elementary School Curriculum	14	35	21
Practice in School Administration	1	5	4	Rural School Curriculum	3	3	0
Technique of Research	3	8	5	Total (Curriculum)	38	124	86
Research in Education	11	32	21	Median	.76	2.48	1.72
Seminar in Education	13	13	0	Supervision			
Research in School Administration	5	12	7	Educational Supervision	10	23	13
Seminar in School Administration	18	26	8	Supervision of Instruction	9	27	18
Organization of State Education	7	16	9	Research in Supervision	0	6	6
Organization of State and County Education	3	9	6	Seminar in Supervision	2	11	9
Organization of County Education	2	5	3	Practice in Supervision	0	7	7
University and College Administration	6	23	17	High School Supervision	2	19	17
Junior College Administration	0	19	19	Elementary School Supervision	9	25	16
Seminar in Higher Education	1	15	14	Rural School Supervision	3	6	3
Secondary School Organization and Administration	20	24	4	Total (Supervision)	35	124	89
Research in Secondary Education	5	13	8	Median	.7	2.48	1.78
				Grand Total	393	1,026	633
				Grand Median	7.86	20.52	12.66

¹Decrease.

they appeared later under different titles, such as technique of research, research in school administration or educational research.

During 1921-22 none of the institutions offered separate courses in junior college administration, school buildings and equipment, platoon school, junior college administration, deans of boys and girls, junior high school curriculum, research in supervision, practice in supervision, seminar in curriculum, and "others." Under "others" are included the courses which were difficult to classify and as they appeared only once they were not listed separately in Table I. Further comparisons may be noted directly from Table I.

Titles for Courses Varied Widely

The total number of courses offered by the fifty institutions increased from 393 to 1,026. The 393 courses represent a range from 2 to 25 with an average of 7.86 and a median of 7. In contrast, the 1,026 courses for 1931-32 represent a range from 6 to 56. The average increased to 20.52 and the median increased to 17.5 courses per institution.

Table II shows the number of institutions which offered no courses or one or more courses in administration, curriculum and supervision at the beginning and end of the decade. It will be noted that during 1921-22, twenty-five or 50 per cent of the institutions offered no separate courses in curriculum, while in 1931-32 only six, or 12 per cent, offered no courses in the same subject. Other comparisons may be obtained directly from Table II.

The great variety of titles used in naming courses of study and the almost complete absence of standardization of course titles indicate that the "science" of education is comparatively new. It is only within recent years that the multiplicity of duties and responsibilities that confront the school administrator have been isolated for special investigation. The need on the part of administrative officers for a more specialized and adequate training has been well met by universities and colleges so far as the number and variety of courses are concerned. This investigation shows that emphasis has been placed on a variety of courses that are directly applicable to the present day school administrator. In the main, the subjects that have received the greatest emphasis as revealed by this study have also received great emphasis in the literature during the same period.

It will be recalled that courses in curriculum construction increased from one to twenty-three during the decade covered by this study. Justification for this increase might be expressed in the words of G. D. Strayer: "Our schools for the most part continue to teach subject matter which is traditional and to employ procedures which are of doubt-

ful value because of lack of training of superintendents of schools in curriculum construction and methods of teaching."¹

As indicated previously, one institution offered a total of six courses in educational administration while another offered fifty-six courses. One might well ask what constitutes an adequate variety of courses in order to ensure sufficient professional training for school administrators. Are six courses too few and are fifty-six courses too many? Does the median of seventeen courses approximate the correct number? Is there a limit as to the number of courses an institution should offer? Is there any positive correlation between the number of courses offered and the efficiency of professional educational training? Are we approaching an ideal or are we running away from one?

W. S. Deffenbaugh, in reviewing forty years of city school administration, points out that "before the year 1890 very little had been written on the subject of school administration. . . . At the present time it is almost an endless task to list all textbooks, magazine articles, masters' and doctors' theses, and graduate and undergraduate college courses on the various problems relating to city school administration." An investigation by R. E. Hyde, "The Overlapping of Subject Matter in Courses in Education," revealed that in a study of ten texts in education used in different courses, there was an overlapping of subject matter among them amounting to 51.6 per cent of the contents. A reorganization of course content on the basis of no overlapping and on the basis of what is considered essential by the majority of experts and school administrators might reduce the number of courses offered by some institutions and increase the number of courses offered by others. Some institutions have combined a variety of separate courses into a major course which covers practically the same ground.

Practical Courses Are Today's Need

Might it not be well to attempt to standardize the number and variety of courses offered at all of the major schools or colleges of education similar to the standardization found in reputable schools of law or medicine? Do Texas students need a course in school finance more than the students in South Dakota? Is it not true that school administrators are not trained for a particular locality?

Despite the economic conditions of the past few years the great influx of school administrators to the summer schools has continued. Boards of education are demanding better trained leaders. Superintendents and principals feel that, in order to

¹Strayer, G. D., Professional Training for Superintendents of Schools, Teachers College Record, June, 1925.

TABLE II—INSTITUTIONS THAT OFFERED NO COURSE OR ONE OR MORE COURSES IN ADMINISTRATION, CURRICULUM AND SUPERVISION IN 1921-22 AND 1931-32

No. of Courses Offered	Administration		Curriculum		Supervision		Total ¹	
	1921-22	1931-32	1921-22	1931-32	1921-22	1931-32	1921-22	1931-32
0	25	6	25	4
1	1	..	16	10	19	16
2	4	..	6	10	3	11	4	..
3	7	1	2	16	2	6	7	..
4	9	..	1	3	1	6	6	..
5	4	3	..	3	..	3	5	..
6	6	4	2	1	1
7	5	3	..	1	4	4
8	3	1	1	4	2
9	..	2	1	5	1
10	3	5	2
11	2	2	4	2
12	2	3	..	1	1	2
13	1	4	2	2
14	..	1	2	2
15	1	2	3
16	..	3	3
17	1
18	1	1	1	4
19	1	1	3
20	..	1
21	..	2
22	..	3
23	..	2	1	..
25	1	1
26	..	1	3
27	..	1	2
29	1
30	..	1
31	1
32	..	2	2
33	..	1
34	1
35	2
36	..	1
37	1
40	..	1	1
44	1
46	1
56	1

¹This total represents the grand total number of courses offered in all three branches of study.

cope more successfully with retrenchment programs, they need more professional training. Today they are more interested in information than in units of credits. In the light of this, the departments of school administration that are forced to reorganize or curtail their curriculum would do well to retain or add those courses that appear to help the administrative officer to cope with current problems. A course in methods of retrenchment might be added even if some of the traditional and less timely courses have to be sacrificed.

When the prospective school administrator or the active administrator attempts to select a program of studies from a university or college catalogue he is faced with a difficult problem. At the beginning of this century he could have conveniently taken all educational courses offered by the institution. That this is not the case at the present time may be shown as follows: If in the year 1900 a student had entered the institution which today offers the median number of courses in education it would have taken him just one year to complete all of the courses offered, provided he carried the normal load and took only courses in education. If

he had entered in 1910 it would have required 2.3 years to complete all the courses. In 1920 it would have taken him a little over three years, and in 1931 it would have required seven full academic years to complete all courses offered in education. At another institution it would require four years to complete all the courses offered in educational administration.

Educational Holdings Valued at Eleven Billion Dollars

The value of property including endowment funds owned by educational institutions reporting in 1930 was equal to 7.2 per cent of the assessed valuation of all property in the United States in 1928 subject to general state property tax, according to the U. S. Office of Education. The total valuation of educational holdings was \$11,216,704,000, which represents as nearly as can be ascertained the approximate sum in educational plants and investments.



The School Lunchroom—An Important Cog in the Teaching Machine

The Chicago high schools have found pictures a great aid in teaching the health value of foods and in encouraging courtesy and good manners in the lunchroom

By FLAVILLA NORMINGTON, Supervisor of Household Arts in Charge of Lunchrooms,
Board of Education, Chicago

THE necessity for the complete social adjustment of the school child is a topic that has claimed the attention of educators for some time. It is being recognized more and more that the school is the place where children live and that if it is to fulfill its function effectively it must provide many opportunities for rich and varied experiences.

The situations the child meets in school must be real life experiences—not things artificial and apart from his natural interests and activities. Consequently, the curriculum has been expanded and adapted to individual needs. School organizations are kept flexible in order to make allowance

for individual differences. Each child is given the maximum opportunity for achievement at his own level so that he may know the satisfaction that comes with success.

Provision for the mental growth of the child, important as it is, is not the only concern of the modern school. The child has other needs that must be met if he is to be adjusted to his group. In the lunchroom division we have a definite health education program and a definite character education program, both of which have a worth while place in any scheme for the complete development of the child.

The aims and practices of school lunchrooms



These are two of the series of pictures used by Foreman Junior High School, Chicago, to instruct pupils in proper conduct in the lunchroom.



with regard to health teaching are generally accepted and widely known. Attractive food posters, many of them made by pupils, have been placed in the lunchrooms. Assembly programs and plays have been presented in order to get the "health-through-food" idea before the school. Numerous



A visual lesson in table etiquette. This is one of the series of educational pictures used in the lunchroom.

articles have appeared in school papers emphasizing the fact that "health reserve is better than wealth reserve." Healthograms, limericks and acrostics have been used to stimulate interest. Well balanced lunches of proper caloric value containing the necessary vitamin and mineral content have been offered at a slightly lower price than the articles would cost if bought separately. There has been general supervision of trays, and comments have been made and advice offered by the teachers in charge of the lunchrooms.

A Definite Part of the School

In the Chicago high schools periodic surveys have been made of the lunches selected by the children. In these surveys the trays are rated as to the satisfactoriness or unsatisfactoriness of the lunches from the standpoint of health. These surveys have made it possible to measure objectively the results of this health teaching in the actual improvement of food habits. The school lunchroom is recognized as a definite part of the school—a laboratory in which actual teaching is being done. In addition to this important work, how-

ever, progressive lunchroom teachers are striving to inculcate in the children habits of courtesy and niceties of manners that promote more gracious living. This phase of the work is not so well known as the health teaching, nor is it so tangible, but it has a definite place in the school lunch program. Since we are social people living in social groups children should cultivate early the art of living happily with other people.

A Visual Teaching Program Used

The Foreman Junior High School, Chicago, has found the use of pictures a great aid in bringing about courteous conduct and good manners in the lunchroom. A series of photographs were taken showing the children engaged in lunchroom activities. The pictures, with appropriate captions, have been hung on the walls in the lunchroom and it is amazing to see the interested children swarm around to see them and incidentally to learn from them. The first picture shows the line-up at the counter and the children waiting in orderly fashion to be served. The second picture shows the children pausing at the silver truck to select



A satisfactory and an unsatisfactory meal are illustrated by this picture.

their silver and then proceeding to the dining room without undue haste. Then there is a picture of two girls seated at a table using the silver in the proper manner. This is a visual lesson in table etiquette. Two pictures show the condition of the lunchroom as the children are ready to leave. The

dishes are neatly stacked and no debris is visible. The last picture in the series shows the children leaving the lunchroom as they would leave any other school classroom. The room is in perfect order and the children are walking happily out of the cafeteria.

This is an excellent series and it has been of great value in emphasizing the teachings regarding manners and conduct in the dining room. Other pictures were used to illustrate various points that need special emphasis. For example, one picture shows the contrast between a well selected and a poorly selected lunch. This is a follow-up of the health teaching. Another picture, and this one preaches a sermon without words, shows three young women seated at the dining room table busily engaged with powder puff, nail file and comb. The moral is obvious.

And so the lunchroom has established itself, not as something apart from the school, but as a necessary part of the school organization. It renders a specific service in teaching health education, in molding the conduct and character of the young people and in giving them an opportunity to practice the fine art of living together.

Organization Plan for a Six-Year High School

The movement toward a continuous six-year organization for the high school is rapidly gaining acceptance, in the opinion of Harrison C. Lyseth, agent for secondary education, department of education of Maine.

For many high schools of Maine the six-year organization offers a wider use of the high school machinery, more effective employment of the teaching force through departmental instruction, greater possibilities in socialization and, perhaps most significant of all, a continuous program of studies together with greater opportunity for educational guidance.

The six-year high school plan seems particularly well adapted to the medium size school system. Many towns that now maintain four-year high schools with fewer than 150 pupils may place the two upper elementary grades in the high school organization with excellent results.

Some of the advantages of the plan may be summarized as follows:

The upper elementary grade pupils are placed where they may have their educational needs most effectively served. All the advantages of the junior high school are conserved by this arrangement.

The one-teacher elementary school is relieved of two grades, which results in a better working unit.

A larger teaching staff is justified. This in turn makes departmental instruction more practical for all grades.

A wider range of courses is possible, especially those having practical or vocational content.

The special activities of the school, such as music, athletics, literary and other clubs, and general social training, become more practical and more interesting because of larger numbers.

With a larger school unit courses of vocational content may be developed more fully for the senior high school pupils.

Should Be a Community Center

The best arrangement for schools from 75 to 200 pupils consists of one or more home rooms for grades seven, eight and nine, and a study hall for the last three grades. In schools enrolling fewer than seventy-five pupils a single study room is practical.

The six-year school will need one or more general workrooms for science, rooms for special courses offered, and two or more recitation rooms. The number of the latter will depend upon the number of teachers and the number of classes in the daily schedule.

The science and special rooms may be used in part for recitation purposes. One of the study rooms should be used as a library.

The minimum layout of two study rooms, one science, two special, one commercial, and three recitation rooms, and an assembly and a gymnasium, will care for 200 pupils.

The school building should become a community building, to the extent that many of the activities should center there. The assembly room and the gymnasium should be frequently used. Special evening courses should be offered. The public library should be in the school building, with a suitable room for committees and small group meetings. Motion pictures can be made wholesome as well as entertaining.

At least four teachers are needed for a six-year school under 100 pupils. Above this number an additional teacher will be needed for each twenty-five pupils. Teachers must be selected with reference to special preparation.

In a four-teacher school, one teacher should be able to teach the languages and some other academic subjects, another should be a normal school graduate with advanced study, the other two teachers should have had training for the special courses offered. All should have made some special study of the junior high school organization.

The Principal as Administrator and Supervisor

An analysis of the supervisory possibilities of the principalship based on data taken from annual reports of principals and superintendents in Kentucky

By ROBERT M. BEAR, Assistant Professor of Education, Dartmouth College, Hanover, N. H.

MUCH is written concerning the importance of the high school principal in supervision and his service as an administrator is also given due weight. Although the potentialities of the position are great realization of them is often so meager that there arises the problem of determining what may be anticipated in a given situation.

The following analysis throws light on several factors that condition possibilities in the typical principalship. The data are taken from annual reports made by principals and superintendents to the state department of education in Kentucky, and relate to the school session 1930-31.

Of the 429 public high schools accredited by the state college association, only the principalships of white schools employing three to ten teachers were investigated, the number being 315. Schools eliminated through this restriction were either larger and nontypical, such as twenty colored and forty-four city white schools, or were very small two-teacher schools.

Typical School Is Small

The data for the 315 principalships are treated according to the type of administrative district in which the schools are located and according to the size of the schools, whether three to four, five to six, seven to eight or nine to ten-teacher schools. Three different types of districts for high schools are found in Kentucky—independent graded schools, city schools and county schools. City and independent graded school districts each have their own systems. All territory not included in either of these two types forms the area over which the county school system operates. One hundred and nine of the high schools with a median enrollment of 105 pupils are in graded districts, sixty-three of these belonging to the three to four teacher class. The county schools number 177 and have a median enrollment of eighty-five. Two-thirds of them are

of the three to four teacher class. Each of the twenty-nine city schools has five or more teachers, the median enrollment being 193. Only twenty principals are women or approximately 6 per cent, seven of these being in three to four teacher schools.

Most Principals Are College Graduates

The general qualifications of the principal for supervisory and administrative work are conditioned by his educational preparation and experience. Of the 315 high school principals only three have not completed the full four-year college course. The percentages of principals with their respective maximum number of years of college or graduate study are as follows:

	3 Yrs. Col.	4 Yrs. Col.	1 Yr. Grad.	2 Yrs. Grad.
Graded principals	1.8	71.6	26.6	0.0
County principals	0.6	82.5	15.2	1.7
City principals	0.0	62.1	37.9	0.0

Included in the term "college training" is the work of eighteen principals, part of which was done in normal schools, and the work of two, whose entire training was taken in normal schools.

In all, 99 per cent have completed at least four years' work beyond high school and received the A.B. or an equivalent degree, while 22.2 per cent have completed one or two years of graduate work. Eikenberry in his extensive study of principals reported that 84.5 per cent had had at least four years of college training and that 32.3 per cent had done one-half year or more of graduate work.¹ In the neighboring state of Ohio, Morrison found that among principals of cities and exempted villages 96 per cent were college graduates, 28 per cent held the M.A. degree and 16 per cent had even more graduate training.²

¹Eikenberry, D. H., Status of the High School Principal, U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1925, No. 24, p. 59.

²Morrison, J. C., The School Principalship in Ohio Cities and Exempted Villages, Ohio State University Studies, 1926, No. 17, p. 17.

Two approaches to a consideration of the experience of these Kentucky principals are desirable, namely, their teaching experience prior to entering their present principalships and the number of years they have held the latter positions. Data relating to these factors are summarized in terms of median years in Table I. For principals in graded districts the median number of years of teaching experience prior to their entering present positions is 7.3. In county schools the median previous experience is 5.8 years, while in the cities it is 4.6. Within the classes of these three units there is no regularity in increase in the length of experience with the increase in the size of the schools. Twenty-one of the entire number or 6.6 per cent had no teaching experience upon securing their present positions as school principals, while 22 per cent had two years' experience or less at the time of securing their present positions.

In the county schools and to a large extent in the first two classes of graded district schools the principal is also in charge of the elementary grades and the larger part of whatever supervision the teachers may receive must come from him. Experience as an elementary teacher thus proves an asset. Of the 286 principals in graded and county school districts, 77.6 per cent had previously taught in the elementary grades, while 80.1 per cent had taught in high school. In contrast, Eikenberry found only 44.6 per cent with the former experience and 54.7 per cent with the latter. Of the twenty-nine Kentucky city principals, 17.2 per cent were without high school teaching experience upon entering their present positions.

Longer Terms in Office Desirable

Reference to Table I will provide a view of tenure. There is a tendency for principals in the larger schools to hold their positions longer than those in the smaller. City principals with a median of 4.2 years in their present positions also have a small advantage over county graded district principals with each of whom the median is 3.5 years. These figures are slightly better than in Eikenberry's

study where the median number of years for all principals was 3.

In summary then it may be said that regarding the training and experience directly and indirectly valuable for supervisory and administrative work, Kentucky principals as a group appear in a fairly good light. Far too few of those in county high schools, however, have made special graduate preparation for this work. A small number in all districts are still becoming principals without having had any previous teaching experience or having had only a meager amount. To reap the maximum benefits from the leadership of qualified persons longer terms in office are desirable. Two factors that may have weight in this regard, salaries and size of teaching load, are treated next.

Salaries Are Low

The principals of the various classes of high schools with their district classification receive for their services the following median salaries:

<i>Teachers</i>	<i>3-4</i>	<i>5-6</i>	<i>7-8</i>	<i>9-10</i>	<i>Median</i>
Graded principals	\$1,989	\$2,281	\$1,625	\$1,875	\$2,072
County principals	1,815	2,205	2,000	2,625	1,881
City principals	1,650	1,750	1,813	1,729

It will be noted that the small city principalships of this study pay lower salaries class for class than are found in the other types. Also the city median salary is \$1,729 while that of the county is \$1,881 and that of the independent graded districts is \$2,072. A partial explanation of these differences is found in the fact already mentioned that in the county and graded schools, especially the smaller ones, the principal usually has the elementary grades under his charge. In the larger graded schools, as a local superintendent emerges to control the whole unit, and in the city schools, the principal's responsibility is considered as smaller and his pay is less.

Eikenberry found that principals of high schools of 300 pupils or fewer, sizes that are comparable

TABLE I—MEDIAN YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE UPON ENTERING PRESENT PRINCIPALSHIPS WITH MEDIAN YEARS OF TENURE IN POSITIONS

<i>Type of District</i>	<i>3-4</i>	<i>5-6</i>	<i>Number of Teachers 7-8</i>	<i>9-10</i>	<i>Median</i>
Graded					
Median experience	6.8	8.5	5.4	3.5	7.3
Median tenure	3.1	3.8	5.4	4.7	3.5
County					
Median experience	5.3	7.9	11.0	8.5	5.8
Median tenure	3.5	3.7	2.5	6.0	3.5
City					
Median experience	..	5.3	3.9	4.2	4.6
Median tenure	..	3.9	4.2	4.5	4.2

TABLE II—MEDIAN NUMBER OF PERIODS TAUGHT DAILY AND MEDIAN PUPIL-HOUR LOAD PER WEEK OF PRINCIPALS

Type of District	Number of Teachers				Median
	3-4	5-6	7-8	9-10	
Graded					
Median periods daily	4.9	4.1	4.2	3.3	4.6
Median pupil-hour week	432.1	410.0	512.5	325.0	428.6
County					
Median periods daily	5.3	4.8	4.0	1.8	5.1
Median pupil-hour week	415.1	400.0	350.0	150.0	408.3
City					
Median periods daily	5.5	4.8	4.4	4.9
Median pupil-hour week	633.3	516.7	449.9	514.3

to those of this study, received median salaries of \$1,969, \$2,123 and \$2,361 according to size. Thus Kentucky salaries have hardly reached the levels discovered by Eikenberry to be typical over six years ago.

It is easy to dogmatize upon the proper level for salaries but difficult to solve the problems involved. Nevertheless, a legitimate inference from the above data would seem to be that Kentucky's monetary valuation of the principalship represents a conception of the position as that of a superior teacher rather than that of the technically trained and experienced supervisor and administrator as well.

Since, as in many other states, the Kentucky principal is a teacher, it is necessary to determine the extent to which this duty monopolizes his attention and thus prevents or hinders the performance of other functions. Two sets of data throw light on this problem—the number of periods taught daily by the principals and their total pupil-hour loads per week. A summary of the findings from these two sources is given in Table II.

Seven Periods in Average School Day

Principals of graded district schools teach a median of 4.6 periods daily, county principals 5.1 periods and city principals 4.9 periods. Within the various classes of these groups the daily teaching load in periods tends to decrease slightly in the larger schools, this being especially noticeable in the graded and county nine to ten teacher class. Additional significance is given to these figures by the fact that the average school day consists of seven regular periods, this being the case in 205 high schools. An eight-period day is next in order and is used in 100 schools, while six periods are used in ten schools.

For comparative purposes it may be recalled that Ferris found in 390 rural and semirural high schools that the median number of periods taught by principals daily was 4.5¹, while the Eikenberry study showed in schools of 300 pupils or fewer

that the median number of periods was either five, four or three respectively, according to size.

Figures for supervision of study halls, although such work is not a part of teaching load, will be given here as this duty consumes much of the remaining time of Kentucky principals. The reports of 205 principals gave complete analyses of the distribution of time during a school day. Of these the 67 graded district principals supervised study halls for a median of 1.7 periods daily, the 125 county principals a median of 1.6 periods, and the 13 city principals 1.3 periods daily.

Principals' Teaching Load Is Heavy

Examination of the weekly pupil-hour teaching loads given in Table II shows the city principals to be carrying the largest, graded principals the next and county principals the smallest. This order corresponds with the size of pupil enrollments in the three districts.

In addition to the total number of periods and pupils taught, the number of lesson preparations and the diversity of the subjects constitute another factor to be considered in determining how much time and energy remain for other duties. Data are available for 308 principals regarding the number of subject-fields in which each teaches courses. Teaching in one field, such as natural science, are 102 principals or 33.1 per cent; teaching in two fields are 167 or 54.2 per cent; teaching in three fields are 37 or 12 per cent; while 2 principals or 0.7 per cent teach in four fields each. These findings dealing with the teaching loads of Kentucky high school principals suggest that for a large number of them this aspect of work and the supervision of study hall require most of the time available during school hours.

The programs of the 205 principals giving complete analyses of their school week were examined to ascertain how much of any time remaining was reported as spent in supervision of instruction or in administrative work. The resulting figures were so small that even when taken in terms of periods per week, medians computed therefrom were zero

¹Ferris, E. N., *The Rural High School*, U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1925, No. 10, p. 15.

or negligible. Ferris concluded in his study that all the time devoted to supervision by high school principals amounted to the equivalent of one forty-minute period per day. In our study the median number of periods during a week given to supervision of instruction by graded district principals was 5.4, and that of county and city principals respectively was zero. Similarly, medians for administrative functioning for the graded district and county principals respectively were zero, and that of the city principals 5.5 periods during a week.

Considered in percentages, 47.8 per cent of the graded district, 53.6 per cent of the county and 61.5 per cent of the city principals report no periods given to supervision; while 53.7 per cent of the graded district, 65.6 per cent of the county and 38.5 per cent of the city principals report no periods spent in administrative work.

What then of the supervisory and administrative possibilities of the Kentucky principalship? Although the present principals appear to have fair qualifications in training and experience, over half would profit by further technical training, and insistence upon experience in all applicants would remove an initial limitation on effectiveness. To encourage the former practice and eliminate the latter deficiency somewhat higher salaries seem desirable. This will largely be futile in its effect, however, unless the principal is relieved of part of his teaching load and supervision of study hall and thus given time during the school day to function as a supervisor. At present supervisory and administrative functions must be performed for the most part on surplus energy out of school hours.

A Full Day of Teaching on the First Day of School

A plan whereby the waste of one or more days at the beginning of the school term can be avoided is outlined by O. E. Bonecutter, principal, Senior High School, Great Bend, Kan. Mr. Bonecutter's school has used this system successfully for the past four years. It calls for the following procedure:

1. Have all pupils enroll for the following year in May. It is desirable to have parental approval on the selection of courses. Pupils graduating from the local eighth grade should be enrolled at this time.

2. The principal must be on hand a month before the opening of school. His first task should be the checking of the May enrollments. The pupil's selection of courses must be checked against

his completed work, his curriculum and the fulfillment of the following requirements—majors and minors, required subjects and sufficient credit.

3. Upon the completion of enrollment checking, the program of classes can be constructed. Since the enrollment is virtually completed, the proper number of sections for each subject can be determined easily.

4. The class hour and the room number are recorded on the individual schedules. These schedules, a book list and a set of rules and regulations are mailed to each pupil ten days before school convenes.

5. Special days are set to allow the changing of schedules for sufficient cause. Pupils new to the community and rural school graduates are notified by newspaper publicity and by letter as to their special day for enrollment.

Locker Assignments Good for Several Years

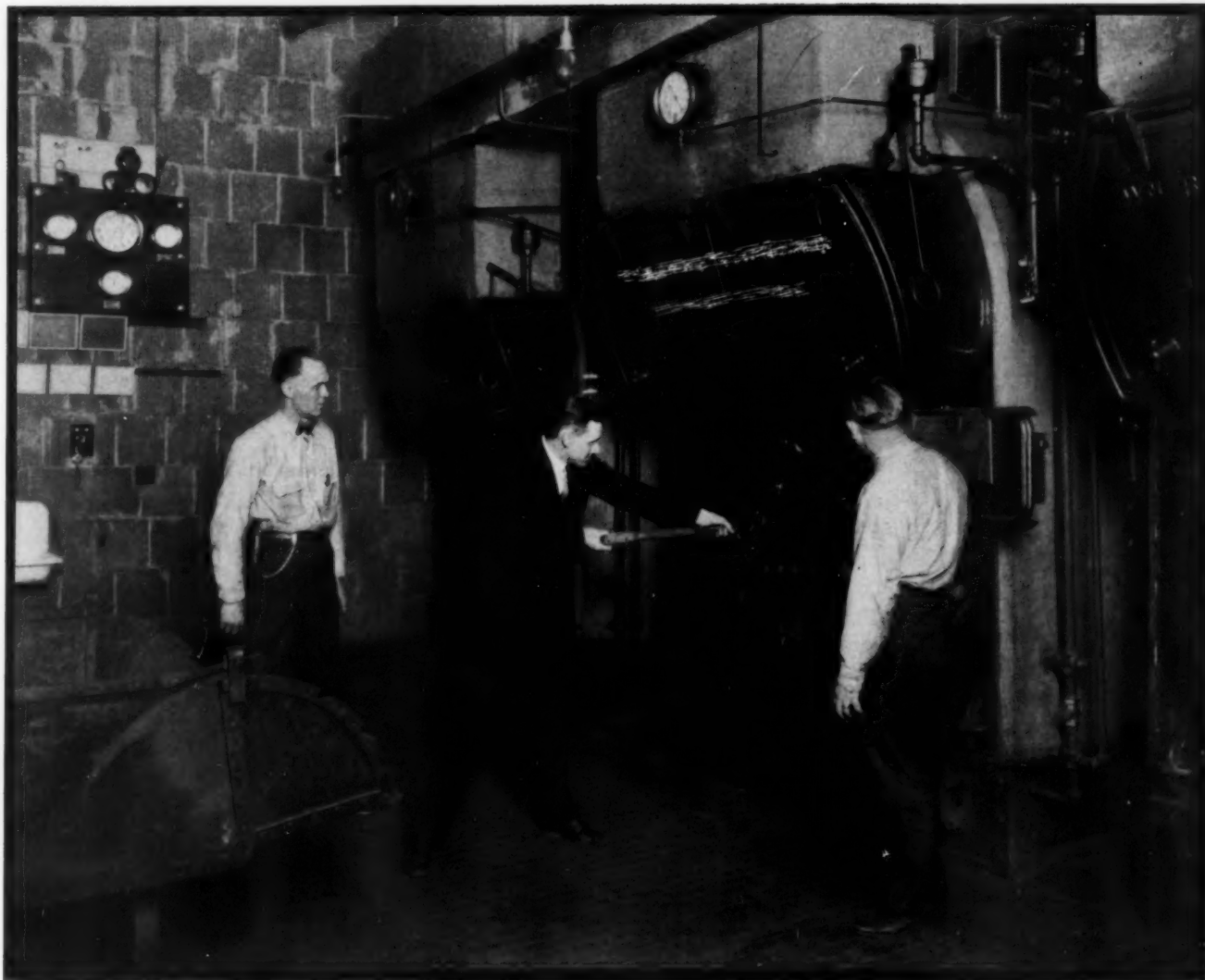
6. The book dealer is given the number enrolled in each class before the individual schedules are mailed out. He can order his books and have them on hand by the time the pupil receives his book list. One of the rules emphasized on the list forwarded to the pupil is the necessity of possessing the required text for the first session of the class. Appropriate grade deductions and a sufficient reprimand from the teacher are all that are needed to inculcate the habit of possessing a text the first day of school.

7. Locker assignments can be carried over from year to year. Seniors should check in their lockers in the spring. Freshmen and new pupils with advanced standing can secure their lockers on the special days assigned for their enrollment, during the week preceding the opening of school.

8. Floor directories, bell schedules, and similar information, included in the rules and the regulations forwarded with the schedule cards will enable the pupil to report the first day, and to go from class to class without confusion.

9. The faculty should be on hand one or preferably two days prior to the opening of school. Lesson plans for the first week can be made and definite plans can be drawn up to make every minute of each hour of the first day count. If the teacher spends several hours in her classroom before the opening of school, she will acquire a familiarity with the surroundings and with the equipment which will help her make a successful first day.

10. Ordinarily teachers should devote the greater part of the first class session to an introduction to the course by the lecture method, a synopsis of the entire course, the beginning of the needed review of prerequisite work and a supervised study of the following day's lesson.



Is Your School Wasting Its Man Power?

By C. T. PYKOSKI, Plant Instructor, Janitorial Training School, Minneapolis

SINCE the operation problem in public school administration is so important, both instructionally and financially, I believe it worth while to outline for administrators an efficient and accurate method for calculating janitorial man power for school buildings.

The details of this plan have been gathered from personal experience. I have, it is true, read a good deal on various subjects pertaining to janitorial man power, but I believe that the authors of such articles as I have read ignored too completely all phases of the work other than the one with which they happened to be dealing, thus providing the reader with information, valuable enough in itself,

perhaps, but too narrow in scope for practical purposes. If the progress that has been made in the field of janitorial work is to continue we must provide ourselves with information that is collective as well as accurate and comprehensive.

If I were asked to calculate the man power for a single school or for a group of schools, and should the situation be such as to make it impossible for me to visit those schools to gather essential information, I should send to the authorities in the municipality concerned a questionnaire to be filled out and returned to me with the information I needed.

In my presentation, I shall use frequently the

words "repetition factor." By that is meant the number of times a certain duty is repeated within a designated period of time. If drinking fountains, for example, are cleaned twice a day, then twice a day is the repetition factor for cleaning drinking fountains, and a certain amount of janitorial manpower must be allotted the school for that particular duty on that repetition factor basis.

Now as to the questions I should ask.

My first would be, What standards does the superintendent demand in the school buildings? If the superintendent is lax about the appearance of the schools, then the repetition factors may as well remain haphazard to the same extent. But, if the superintendent sets a high standard for the operation of the schools, and demands that these standards be maintained, then serious thought and study must be devoted to the schedule of repetition factors, for the appearance of the buildings depends mainly on the repetition factors.

My second question would be, What is the location of the school? Is it situated in a residential, factory or apartment house district? We find, as a general rule, that in localities occupied by factories or apartment houses the soot exhausted from the smokestacks penetrates the school buildings in that vicinity to such an extent as to make

it necessary to increase the repetition factors on the majority of janitorial duties. The glass, for example, because of the soot that adheres to it, must be cleaned with greater frequency than is necessary in a school in a residential district. In a factory locality, too, the soot falls on playgrounds and is carried on to the floors by the soles of the children's shoes and on to the furniture and woodwork by their hands. The condition of the streets surrounding the school building is another important item to be considered, for the dust created by traffic on streets that are neither oiled nor paved sifts into the building and at certain seasons of the year increases to a great extent the sweeping and dusting required.

My third question, and it is an important one, would be, To what extent do the teachers and the principal cooperate with the janitor-engineers or custodians of the school? Are the children permitted to strew paper and other things about the building without interference from those in authority? Are they permitted to enter the building from the playground with heavy mud or snow plastered on their clothing, the one to dry and fall where it may inside the school, the other to melt and be brushed against and smeared over the walls? It is astonishing how much extra janitorial



The mats under the pails protect the floor against water damage, which would mean extra work in the end.



An example of wasted man power. Four members of the janitorial staff converged on a minor repair job.

work may be avoided if the principal and the teachers cooperate with the janitors in a school. As a matter of fact, in some instances such cooperation may make it possible to reduce the man power.

The fourth item to be considered is the condition and construction of the grounds and the building. The dust and mud carried into the building by the children, from poorly constructed grounds, make a great difference in the labor required for cleaning. Has the building been well kept up? Is the cement in the foundation crumbling? Has the painting been maintained? Are the cement floors rough and filled with holes, so that to clean them properly is almost impossible? Are the windows loosely fitted so that they permit the penetration of dust? In what condition are the wood floors? Are they well made, or are they filled with cracks, which makes sweeping extremely difficult? Do the outside windows have large panes of glass or numerous small ones? Large panes require a good deal less time and labor for cleaning than small ones. Has the building a high wainscoting or merely a mop board? All these questions are pertinent in a discussion of janitorial work.

The boiler room and heating and ventilating equipment would be the fifth item to be considered.

Is the boiler room situated so as to be a part of the main building unit or is it in a separate wing? Are there separate coal and ash rooms and does coal dust fly about inside the building and settle on furniture and glass? Does the building have temperature control, low pressure boilers? Are the boilers equipped with automatic regulators? Are the boilers of sufficient size to supply the demand of steam? Is the proper kind of coal being supplied for the furnace. So far as these heating questions are concerned, an answer in the affirmative or in the negative to any one of them will mean a great deal in determining repetition factors for a building.

Sixth, I should deal with the matter of the kind of tools provided for the care of the building. Is there a standard well built dirt box, or is the box merely a makeshift one the janitor put together, which permits the dirt to escape whenever it is set down? Is the building provided with a proper sized dustpan and with brushes of the proper size? Are there enough mop heads for sweeping mops so that as many as are needed may be in use while an equal number are being cleaned? Is a standard hall mop furnished? Are cleaning cloths of a good grade provided, or does the janitor use some old rags he brings from home? Are chamois skins

furnished for cleaning glass? Is the building provided with a standard window platform for cleaning the outside of windows? Are there enough step ladders? Are the quality, quantity and standardization of tools always dependable, or are they so uncertain as to make it necessary to take them into consideration in determining man power?

Item number seven would relate to the kind of materials supplied for maintaining the building, the major one being the floor preservative. The important thing is that it be of a quality that will keep the floors in good condition with a minimum amount of labor. The same general rule may be applied to other cleaning agents used in a school.

Social Activities Are Important Factor

In item number eight I should deal with lawns and shrubbery. What equipment is furnished for watering lawns and shrubs? Are the sprinklers of a type that must be moved after watering an area of 100 square feet of lawn, or is there a regular sprinkling system? Is the lawn foundation of proper materials so that it will absorb and hold moisture? Are power lawn mowers available? Is a shovel used for trimming lawn edges close to the sidewalks? Are the shrubs pruned by the janitorial force? These questions are asked so as to determine just how much time should be allotted for duties on lawns.

The ninth item to be considered is the social activities conducted in the school building. Is the school equipped with an auditorium or is it necessary to set up a large number of chairs several times a week? Do those in authority cooperate in keeping order, or must the janitor continually leave his routine work to assist in preventing disturbances and to protect school property? Are the meetings confined to designated rooms or are those who attend meetings permitted to roam about the building at will? Are the meetings generally of such a nature as to make it necessary that the building or sections of it be swept when the meeting is over?

My tenth question would be, Is the building carrying its normal capacity of pupils or is it overcrowded? Are night school and summer school classes conducted? If so, the janitorial work required for such classes should be dealt with as a unit apart from the regular day school janitorial work.

The eleventh and last item would be, To what extent are the janitors expected and allowed to make repairs about the school building? Is the chief engineer permitted to make whatever repairs he wishes, or is he restricted to a few minor items about the building so that just so much janitorial time and labor for repairs may be specified?

In arranging repetition factors for a building, it must be considered that there are various duties which, although each seems to be one unit of work, should be separated and dealt with singly. Sweeping, for example, must be divided into the three separate and distinct duties of sweeping halls, sweeping stairs and sweeping classrooms. First floor halls require sweeping more often than do second, third and fourth floor halls; some stairs are swept three times a day, and others only twice a day; classrooms are swept only once a day. The same is true of a number of other duties in a school building.

The matter of floors likewise requires thorough consideration, for there are as many different floor cleaning and treating methods as there are different types of floors, and each must be dealt with separately.

And now we come to the time factors, a phrase that is self-explanatory in that it means the length of time required for the performance of any particular duty.

In preparing time factors for the various duties in a school building, it is a good idea at the outset to assign three men to perform the same duty—a speedy worker, a worker of ordinary speed and a slow worker—and to average the time made by the three of them and set that time as a standard. In following this procedure, it is advisable to group certain minor duties that must be performed within a relatively small area—a classroom, for example—and then set a time factor to cover those duties in a group rather than singly. Picking up paper, closing windows and adjusting shades in a classroom, as an illustration, are duties that may be nicely grouped under one time factor. To travel throughout the building three times in the performance of those particular duties individually is a waste of valuable time.

Simply a Problem in Mathematics

The repetition factors and time factors for each daily duty once established, the remainder of the procedure is more or less mathematical. The repetition factor for each daily duty, multiplied by the number of school days in a year, plus the additional number of times the duty is performed due to unusual conditions, multiplied by the number of minutes or fraction thereof required to perform the duty, is the total amount of time spent on that particular duty for one year. There remains only to multiply the number of minutes in a janitor's working day by the number of school days in a year, including Saturdays, and then divide the total number of minutes required during the year to perform all the duties in a school by the total number of working minutes in a year.

Big Educational Expansion Resulted From 1857 Economic Panic

The public schools not only proved their ability to weather the storm, but to conquer it, and emerged from the deflation period with greatly increased financial support

By ROYCE S. PITKIN, Headmaster, New London High School, New London, N. H.

HAVING been cleansed by the purging effects of the depressions of the 'thirties and 'forties, the American economic system appeared to take on new life with the opening of the fifth decade of the last century.

Prosperity was again much in evidence, industrial expansion progressed at a rapid pace, commodity prices soared, stimulated by the discovery of gold in California and Australia, another railroad boom started, the bankers made loans on slender margins, land speculation was again in vogue and everywhere feverish attempts were being made to accumulate wealth by quick and easy methods.

There were slight interruptions in 1853 and 1854, but the bulls of that day had their way and business rushed madly up the hill of inflation, arriving at the peak in 1857. The panic occurred that year and commerce took a discouraging slump. It was claimed by the *New York Tribune* that two-thirds of the people were in debt. At any rate, bank failures were the order of the day. Business houses, railroads, manufacturers and land owners became bankrupt in large numbers. Unemployment grew to impressive proportions and protest meetings of laborers were held in the large industrial centers.

Education prospered in Massachusetts

Thus did the famous depression of 1857 begin and, though it did not last nearly as long as the depression of 1837, the business structure of the nation was badly disturbed before revival began in 1859.

But how did public education fare during these years of commercial disorder? Let the secretary of the Massachusetts board of education for the period answer the question in his own words as stated in his report for 1857-58:

"The year that is closing is marked as a year of more than unusual prosperity in the educational affairs of the state. The recent financial difficulties,

which interrupted the business of the country, have been so ordered by Divine Providence, as, in their results to give increased opportunities for the enjoyment of the privileges of our common schools."

Or let Calvin H. Wiley, the great educational leader of North Carolina, give the answer as he gave it in his fifth annual report:

"While nearly every other business has felt the blight of the recent monetary troubles, this enterprise (education) has not been sensibly disturbed, and amid the general gloom which so lately has enveloped public and private affairs, scarcely a passing shadow was thrown on its prospects.

No ill effects in North Carolina

"Indeed I cannot discover that the common school system suffered at all, in its actual operations, or in its hopes of the future, by the late widespread financial disasters; on the contrary it seems to me to have taken a stronger hold on the public confidence by the contrast which the stability of its resources and the certainty of its operations have presented to the fluctuations and embarrassments of all other interests.

"These fluctuations and embarrassments have also moderated the desires of the community, and have developed a disposition to make sober, practical and economical calculations; and such a disposition cannot fail to enure to the benefit of a system by which all the children of the state can be instructed at less expense to each individual than by any other plan that can be devised."

An examination of the public school statistics for the five-year period ending in 1860 in general tends to confirm the judgment of these men. According to the figures of the Massachusetts school returns, there was in that state an increase of 12 per cent in school attendance for these years, a gain of 26 per cent in the amount raised by taxes for the support of schools, a gain of 12 per cent on

the amount raised per pupil, a gain of 22 per cent in the average monthly salary of men teachers and a gain of 16 per cent in the average salary of women teachers. In addition to these gains in financial support many other advances were made. Between the years 1854 and 1860, thirty-one towns established high schools, according to the study made by the late Alexander J. Inglis. Attention was given to the problem of adult education and in 1857 the Massachusetts legislature authorized the towns to establish and maintain adult schools. In its report for 1857, the state board of education stated that the act "has been practically observed in some towns." More child labor legislation was enacted in 1858, and the minimum length of the school year was set at six months in 1859.

Sweeping Progress in New York and New Jersey

Similar progress was made in Connecticut where the total amount of money raised for maintaining the public schools increased from \$349,997 for the year 1855 to \$398,181 in 1860, a gain of 13.8 per cent. In the meantime, the number of children between the ages of four and sixteen years had increased only about 8 per cent. Another evidence of the willingness of the people of Connecticut to extend their schools was the fact that the percentage which local taxes were of the whole income for schools increased, while the percentage which the income of the state school fund was of the total decreased. And while the amount raised by local taxes increased 48.2 per cent, the amount of the grand list on which the taxes were assessed increased only 9.7 per cent. However, the wages of men teachers, though increasing slightly, failed to keep ahead of the rise in commodity prices and those of women teachers gained only one-half of one per cent.

In Rhode Island the total amount of money raised for public schools made a net gain of 21.4 per cent for these years and the amount raised by local taxation for that purpose increased 53 per cent. The expenditures for school buildings increased three-fold from 1855 to 1858, but dropped off sharply in 1859 to be followed by another sharp increase in 1860.

The average attendance in Maine gained 20 per cent, the amount raised by taxes for the support of schools increased 21.6 per cent, and the salaries of teachers made noticeable gains in terms of dollars but not in buying power. The amount of money distributed to the localities by the state rose from \$66,619 in 1855 to \$76,979 in 1860. The reports available for the other two New England states, New Hampshire and Vermont, indicate that the trends in public school support were definitely upward throughout the period.

The effects of the depression on the growth of wealth in New York State is shown by the fact that from 1856 to 1860 the aggregate valuation of taxable property increased less than 1 per cent and actually decreased in 1858 and 1859. Nevertheless, the money for the public schools increased steadily, rising from \$3,323,050 to \$3,744,247 in these same years. The amount apportioned by the state to the districts made a gain of 18.5 per cent. Curiously enough the total amount of taxes collected for general purposes of government increased 48.8 per cent. Apparently the New Yorkers of that period believed that a reduction in government costs was not essential to economic recovery, and it must be admitted that they were right.

Sweeping progress was also made in New Jersey in the field of public education. From 1854 to 1860 the number of children in the schools increased 20 per cent, the average salary of teachers gained 13 per cent, the amount raised by taxes for the support of schools jumped 68 per cent, the amount raised per pupil advanced 40 per cent and the amount raised for school houses made a net gain of 4 per cent, although not keeping up to the high levels of 1855 and 1856.

So far as can be determined from an examination of the school statistics for Pennsylvania as a unit there was no halt in the march toward better common schools during the period under consideration. In the six years the average monthly salary of men teachers rose 8.6 per cent, those of women teachers 21.6 per cent and the expenditures for school houses 68 per cent. Total expenditures per pupil in attendance climbed 46 per cent, the amount received by the districts from the state was 21 per cent higher and the amount of the school tax levied gained 44 per cent.

Illinois School Expenditures Soared 145 Per Cent

As Wiley suggested in his report, quoted above, the educational affairs of North Carolina prospered while business languished. From 1854 to 1860 the disbursements of the literary fund for schools in that state rose from \$153,737 to \$186,054, the amount raised by local taxes went up 21 per cent, as did the total paid out for common schools.

Across the mountains the forces that brought about the widespread improvement in public schools were operating just as definitely as they were in the older states of the Atlantic seaboard. In Ohio, while the number of children of school age increased 9 per cent, the number of children in average attendance at the public schools gained 28 per cent. The total expenditures for schools, not including those for buildings, soared 60 per cent. The average monthly salary of men common school teachers advanced 11.2 per cent and that of

women teachers, 14 per cent in the five-year period.

The extent to which school expenditures and school taxes increased in Illinois during this depression period of the 'fifties would send the modern tax dodger to bed in a palsied fear. While the total valuation of taxable property gained only 5 per cent, the whole amount expended for school purposes literally flew up 145 per cent and the amount raised by special district taxes increased to the extent of 270 per cent. In the meantime, the number of children in school attendance had increased 51 per cent.

Gains Recorded in Michigan, Wisconsin and Iowa

The school system of Michigan was born in a period of severe depression and was, therefore, prepared to weather the gale of business adversity. Only in 1859 did the shortage of money in the country manifest itself in the school affairs of Michigan. But even in that year when the local taxpayers felt compelled to reduce their assessments, the legislature doubled the required tax by raising it from one to two mills. Thus, in 1860, the total amount raised for school purposes had risen 48 per cent since 1855, the amount paid out in wages to teachers had increased 58 per cent and the number of children in school had gained 36 per cent. Another effect of the depression appears to have been the destruction of the rate bill system, which fell into a serious decline in 1858.

Entering the Union as a state in 1848, Wisconsin had shown a remarkable growth, the population having reached 552,109 in 1855 and 777,771 in 1860. In the same period the number of children between the ages of four and twenty years increased 55.3 per cent, according to the reports of the state superintendent. During the same five years the number of children actually attending school rose 59 per cent, the number of days that the schools operated increased from eighty-four to 136, the salaries of men teachers went up 6 per cent, those of women teachers rose 27 per cent and the amount raised by tax for public schools made the astounding advance of 347 per cent.

Iowa, another of the newer states, kept pace with the other commonwealths in the extension of public education. Besides the gains in financial support, which amounted to 42 per cent per pupil from 1854 to 1860, notable gains were made in the legislative field. In 1858, with the counsel of Horace Mann and Amos Dean, a new school law was enacted. This law abolished the rate bill system, made the schools free to all white children from five to twenty-one years of age, gave aid to county institutes, authorized county high schools, established the office of county superintendent and made the township the unit of school organization.

Although Missouri was granted statehood in 1821, it did not adopt a system of public schools until 1839, a depression year. As in all the other states for which information is available, Missouri made progress in public education during the depression of 1857. From 1856 to 1860 the number of teachers in the state almost doubled, going from 2,889 to 5,720, the amount paid in teachers' salaries increased 82 per cent, the amount raised for building and repairing school buildings showed the astonishing increase of 491 per cent and the number of pupils increased 75 per cent.

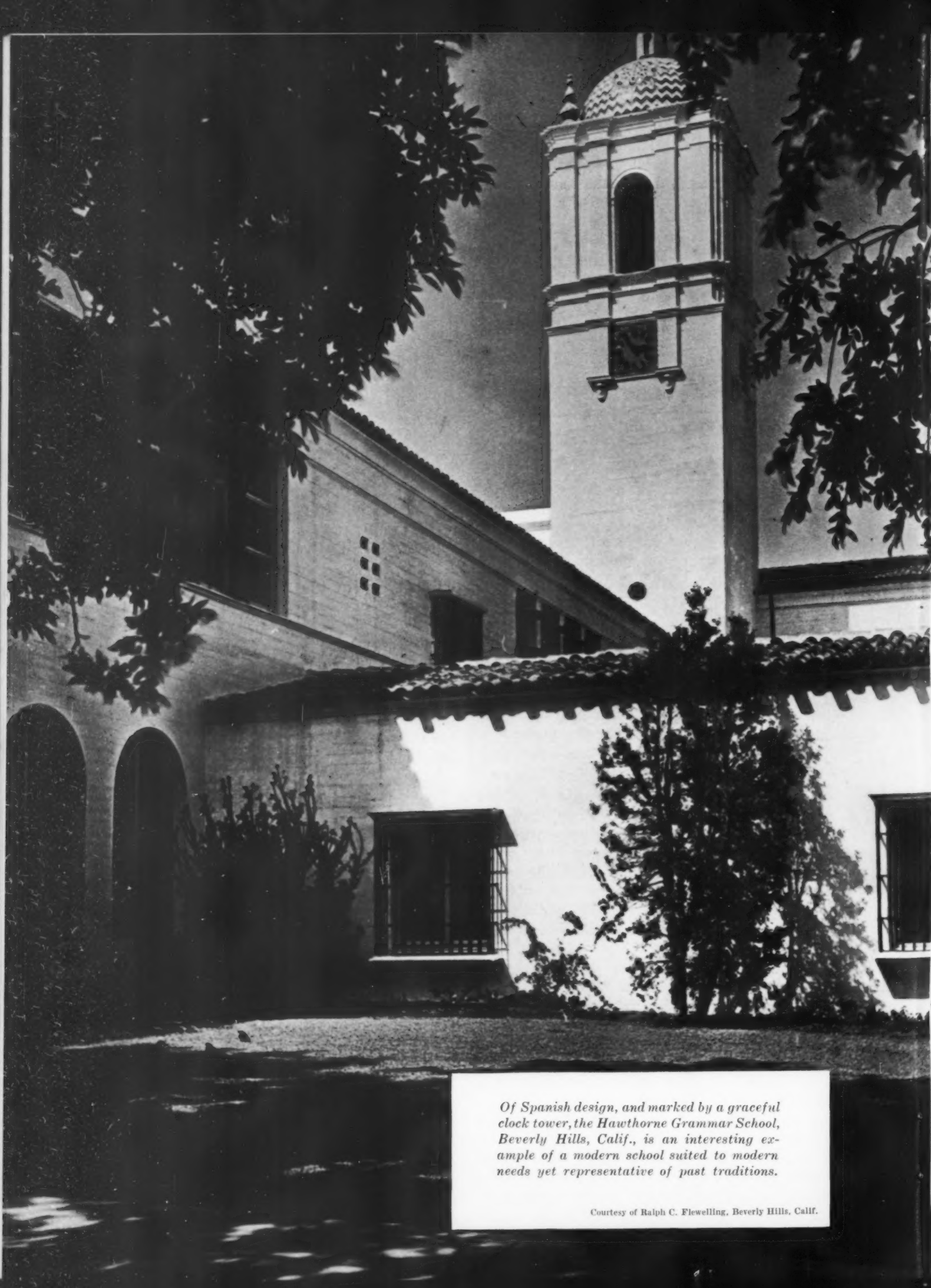
From Missouri let us turn to the Pacific coast, where the booming state of California was reacting from the gold rush of 'forty-nine with its consequent period of inflation. Even so the public schools were flourishing. The number of children of school age increased 188.5 per cent from 1854 to 1860, the number attending school increased 284 per cent, the number of teachers increased 288 per cent and the amount paid for salaries rose 262 per cent. The total expenditures for schools increased 72 per cent, but because of the unusual increases in enrollments the expenditures per pupil declined until 1858 when they began to show an increase.

From the information that has been presented it is obvious that the people of this period were greatly concerned with the welfare of the public schools. The frontier with its tendency to remove all class distinctions, the extension of manhood suffrage, the growth of the cities and the rapid development of means for the dissemination of ideas, all served to encourage the development of the common school as an essential institution.

An Enviably Record of Progress

It has been observed that in every state in which the situation was considered the schools made substantial gains and in each case emerged from the period with financial support measurably greater than they had received in the prosperous days prior to the depression. In some states, to be sure, there were declines in total expenditures in the first or second years of the crisis, but the recovery was always quick and full. The gains in school support ran ahead of the gains in population and in states where the property valuations were known the school taxes assessed on those valuations increased faster than did the property values. Although this was mainly a period of rising prices, the expenditures kept distinctly ahead of the rise in the commodity price level in several of the states, and whenever prices dropped, the schools made substantial gains.

All in all the record for progress in the extension of public education was an enviable one for a period of economic depression.



Of Spanish design, and marked by a graceful clock tower, the Hawthorne Grammar School, Beverly Hills, Calif., is an interesting example of a modern school suited to modern needs yet representative of past traditions.

Courtesy of Ralph C. Flewelling, Beverly Hills, Calif.

A Budget Control Plan for Handling Student Activity Funds

Beatrice, Neb., has placed its extracurricular activities on a sound financial basis. The success of the system suggests that other schools can eliminate bungling, unsatisfactory methods

By R. B. CAREY, Dean, Junior College, Grand Island, Neb.

BUDGETS! Budgets! Budgets! Is this word to be the most hated in the English language or will it develop a halo? Just now the word is being freighted with such meanings as these: deficit, taxation, limited service, salary slashes, half-time employment, unemployment, suffering and want.

If business and government can plan and execute budgets that will restore wholesome economic conditions, the word may replace religion's big word, salvation, in its hold on the popular mind. The application of the word extends from individuals and families to corporations, cities, states, the nation and even the League of Nations. Headlines appearing in newspapers indicate the tremendous interest in budgets at the present time.

Since the strong advocacy of President Taft for the application of business practices to the nation's financial problems and the creation of a national budget, other governmental agencies have given thought to the possibility of the use of the budget as a means of control and a guarantee of solvency. All lines of business have generally adopted the idea of the budget and have made it a part of their fiscal policy.

Extracurricular Activities Overlooked

Following the lead of government and big business, education has been alert to its financial problems and the application of the budget to school procedure has grown apace. The business administrators of our educational machinery were quick to seize upon this device for the orderly control of income and outgo. Under the leadership of such men as Strayer and Engelhardt, school executives have developed practical and fairly uniform procedures for the control of the taxpayers' money to be spent for schools. Strange as it may seem, however, one of the supplementary services of the school, the extracurricular activities, appears to have been overlooked in the financial planning of

many schools. This is due, not to the failure of the modern school executive to estimate properly the importance of the contribution of the pupil activities to the educational total, but rather to the fact that the activities themselves are relatively new in the scheme of things scholastic and that they are constantly changing.

These activities have seemed to spring up spontaneously, out of situations that were not foreseen or planned. No responsible agency had either planned them ahead or made any definite estimate of probable expense or income, and all too frequently no limitation was put upon the individual or group promoting the affairs, as to the amount to be spent or how the accounts were to be handled.

System Had Many Weaknesses

Fortunately that condition is rapidly passing. Courses in extracurricular activities in teachers' colleges are now emphasizing the need of a planned control of finances and many schools have been experimenting with schemes to guarantee the wise expenditure of funds.

The experience of the secondary schools of Beatrice, Neb., has been rather enlightening and the plan developed there during the past several years is being widely adopted in Nebraska and neighboring states.

In September, 1925, there was a demand for a broader program and more efficient financial control of extracurricular affairs in the Beatrice secondary schools. The senior high school enrolled about 500 pupils and across the street was a new junior high school building just being put into commission, whose enrollment was expected to be slightly in excess of 500 pupils. Previously the extracurricular activities had been of the hit-or-miss variety, without coordination, and occasional deficits required subsidies from an unwilling board of education.

The shortcomings of the existent system may

be summarized as follows: (1) a limited extracurricular program; (2) poor financial management; (3) excessive time taken for pupil rallies and ticket selling campaigns; (4) low school spirit and poor attendance at games; (5) complete dominance of the extracurricular field by athletics, and (6) lack of centralized control.

Any new organization created to remedy these weaknesses would need to function in two directions, the goals being a better financial status for the extracurricular activities of the school and a much increased pupil participation.

To attain these ends two lines of activity seemed to be indicated.

Special Board of Managers Created

First, it was necessary to centralize control so as to ensure a planned program, properly balanced and organized on a definite schedule. Control of finances through a budgetary procedure seemed to offer the obvious means for obtaining a strong hold on extracurricular matters.

Second, larger pupil participation must be secured. This seemed to suggest an element of democracy in relation to control and to finances, so that cost of participation should not be a barrier. A means of presenting the products of the activities of any group to the school as a whole at a nominal price apparently was desirable.

A study of the available literature on the subject made possible the statement of certain principles that seemed to apply, as follows: that democratic participation in control is desirable; that centralization of financial management in the hands of one person or of a small executive committee gives a core around which a program may be built as a unit; that a general fund through which all money must pass makes possible the expenditure of the total funds for a balanced program.

In choosing the medium by which democratic control might be obtained for the new organization, the student council was considered. Three objections were noted: (1) The student councils in these schools were rather unwieldy, due to size (two members from each home room). (2) The council might be made up largely of pupils not actively interested in any extracurricular activity. (3) As the council was constituted, it appeared undesirable to add to it the coaches and sponsors of the activities, who certainly should have a direct voice in the management of the activities.

It was decided, therefore, to constitute a special board of managers for student activities with the following membership: the coaches and sponsors of each activity, the dean of boys, the vice principals and principals of the junior and senior high

schools, with the senior high school principal as chairman. There was equal representation of pupils, consisting of the president of the student council, the captains of the various athletic teams and elected representatives of each activity.

A survey of the activities of the school revealed that they might be classified as of two kinds.

First, there were those whose interests and activities were not of a character to justify their presentation to the public or the student body as a whole. This group included class organizations, clubs and societies organized for personal development or social pleasure. It was thought that sufficient control of these organizations could be maintained by careful sponsoring and the requirement of an annual report. The type of blank used for the annual report is shown here.

The second kind of activities included those appealing to all pupils and to the public. These included dramatic, debating and musical organizations and athletics. The activities of this group were the ones that raised and spent money in con-

TYPE OF ANNUAL REPORT BLANK USED BY CLASS ORGANIZATIONS AT BEATRICE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Name of Organization.....	
Number of members October 1, 193.....	
Number of members May 1, 193.....	
Average attendance at meetings.....	
Total number of meetings.....	
Number of social affairs.....	
Attach recommendations for next year.....	
Total amount raised by dues.....	
Amount raised by other means.....	
Total receipts.....	
Expended for.....	
.....	
.....	
Attach check for balance on hand.....	
Signed.....	
.....	President
.....	Sponsor

siderable amounts. They appealed directly for the support of the student body as a whole. They were constantly before the public in the press accounts, in advertising and in performances, games and entertainments. These activities impinged upon the public consciousness also through their dealings with the local merchants.

Good business relations with the community were an asset that could not be squandered. In order that bills might be met promptly, control through the faculty rather than through pupil treasurers was necessary. For the same reason it was necessary to know what such bills were going to amount to and where the money was coming

from. Furthermore, it was important that there should always be a balance on hand. This meant planning the total program ahead for at least a semester, and setting up a budget that would guarantee not only ultimate solvency but the prompt meeting of all obligations.

Each Activity Placed on a Budget

It was therefore provided that the first duty of the board of managers should be to construct a calendar of events for the semester, and that its second duty should be to create and establish a financial budget. The procedure set-up was as follows:

Each coach or sponsor was notified that he should plan his program for the semester, specify the nature of the public appearances of his group and the date (either approximate or specific) that he desired for each appearance. He was to present an itemized estimate of the cost of the event or events and of the probable gate receipts. He was to bring these estimates and a pupil representative to a general meeting of the board of managers on Tuesday evening of the first week of school.

At the meeting of the board of managers the official calendar was agreed upon, due weight being given to the proposals and to the time requirements and estimate of expense. When the calendar was completed, more careful scrutiny was given the estimate of total income and outgo. No part of the program received final approval until the means of financing the whole program was in sight. This did not mean that each activity must pay its own way from gate receipts. The debate budget involved the expenditure of approximately \$200, with a probable income of \$25. The balance was to be appropriated from the general fund. A majority vote of the group made the calendar and budget official. No coach or sponsor was to go above the approved estimate for his own activity without the permission of the chairman and if the additional sum desired was considerable, the approval of the board of managers must be gained.

An activities association was set up, membership in which was to be open to all pupils and faculty members upon the weekly payment of ten cents in the home room each Monday morning. This brought a feeling of ownership, thoroughly diffused among the student body. This idea was borrowed from the Technical High School, Omaha.

No compulsion was placed upon the pupil to become a member, but a selling campaign stressing cooperation and the idea of thrift (\$1.80 for approximately \$5 worth of entertainment) was put on. Also a prize was offered to the home room that maintained 100 per cent membership through the semester. A gummed stamp was to be pasted

in a square for each week on a membership card which entitled the pupil to admission to all the events of the semester, provided all squares up to and including the one for the current week carried the proper stamps. An account with each pupil was kept by the home room teacher.

The funds were sent to the principals' offices where accounts were kept with each home room. The cash was then deposited with the secretary of the board of education, who wrote all checks upon orders signed by the chairman of the activities board. The secretary was chosen to handle the funds because: (1) she was bonded; (2) her accounts were subject to audit at the will of the board, and (3) it put the accounts where they could be seen more readily by members of the board of education and was as convenient as any other plan for the chairman.

No one was to buy anything or obligate the organization without first securing the chairman's signature to a purchase order.

The usual method of accounting, showing sources of all money and the activity for which it was paid out, was used. Usually a statement was rendered to the sponsor concerned as soon after an event as possible.

The success of the plan from a financial standpoint is shown by the following accounting of receipts and expenditures:

<i>Year</i>	<i>Gross Receipts</i>	<i>Gross Expenditures</i>	<i>Annual Balances</i>
1925-26	\$5,400.74	\$5,274.31	\$126.43
1926-27	5,481.59	5,412.91	68.68
1927-28	5,011.28	5,004.20	7.08
1928-29	4,372.03	4,248.29	123.74

Bills were met promptly; occasionally discounts for cash could be taken advantage of and merchants were pleased to have their bills against the school activities handled in this businesslike manner.

Some Changes Made in the System

Experience brought some changes in the scheme of management. The chairmanship and the details of the financial control were transferred from the senior high school principal to the head of the commercial department. Later, an executive committee, consisting of the two principals, the two vice principals and the chairman was set up to approve all bills and pass on any variations from the original calendar or budget. This proved to be unwieldy and the chairmanship was returned to the senior high school principal with the responsibility for modifications resting on him. This centralizes control and is more convenient for all concerned, although it places a considerable burden of detail upon the principal.

Editorials

The Schools Must Run

WE ARE face to face with the most terrific crisis in the history of our national economic and social life. No one knows exactly what the future holds. No one can foretell exactly the order of events. Many individuals will be sorely tried during this period. Whatever the future has in store, one fact is patent and clear—the schools must run. The children must be cared for and taught so long as it is possible for this to be done. It is the professional obligation of teachers to carry on. This sense of social obligation and its general tacit acceptance distinguishes teaching as a profession.

During this period of uncertainty many questioning voices arise and urge this and urge that as a means of alleviating the apparently unnecessary hardships many teachers have suffered. Personal inadequacies and wounded sensibilities are of subordinate importance compared to the continuance of the democratic tradition exemplified in the public schools. Our ideal of free and independent public education for all is one worth fighting for. Its continuity during the present transition period is squarely before the profession. Other agencies and activities are too much concerned with their own existence to give thought to this vital agency for the transmission of the cultural heritage. Teachers, who are in close relation to and in direct communication with the parents of children, should assure them by every means in their power of the necessity of carrying on.

The children must not suffer. They must be given their chance. The closing of the educational agencies even for a short period may be more destructive than most people imagine. The will of the teachers, and in that category we included all engaged in any aspect of teaching whether directly or through the provision of facilitating services, to continue even at great personal sacrifice has been amply demonstrated during the past three years. Time and again in numerous situations they have remained at their posts without pay. Without asking for sympathy or for sentimental and effusive eulogy they have kept the doors open and cared for the children. In many other situations they have shared their slender resources with willing spirit with the children so that they might be adequately clothed and fed. The schools have been one of the bright and shining spots in the turmoil

and uncertainty that have prevailed in this country during the past several years.

The nation and the parents need have no fear for their children. They will be cared for. The teachers as a group have risen splendidly and submerged self for the social welfare. In the days that are ahead of us the vast majority of the members of the teaching profession will do even more for the social welfare.

Written rules or printed promises are not needed at this time. Certain administrative groups who feel that the teachers' faith should be reenforced with high sounding phrases and "so help me" clauses are distinctly out of tune with the actual situation. Such promises of loyalty would be in bad taste under current conditions. We need no reassurance from the teachers. We know that they will meet all obligations within the range of human possibility. Parents do need reassurance but we believe that this reassurance would be in much better taste if made directly by word of mouth from the teachers to the parents without sonorous phraseology or rhetorical embellishment.

Let each school unit carry this simple message to the parents of children: "We are your teachers. As teachers you may rest assured that everything will be done to protect your children. That is the obligation we assumed on becoming teachers. No matter what happens, so long as it is humanly possible, the schools will run. We will be true to our tradition and to our faith."

A Professional Anachronism

IT APPEARS that several members of our guild are cherishing a decidedly archaic point of view in professional ethics. Although no vacancy exists, there are already more than half a dozen open candidates for the United States commissionership of education, and at least as many others are seeking the post through a more circuitous route. These latter have adopted what was once the orthodox but political *modus operandi* of engaging a campaign manager, who blithely declares that the candidate himself is quite ignorant of what is going on.

On the assumption that the present incumbent is bound to be dismissed for political reasons, we have received requests from a dozen sources to write a letter to the President or to the Secretary of the Interior endorsing for the commissionership Doctor A, Doctor B or Doctor C, who have scarcely been heard of outside their own sections or states. Of course, some of the persons put forward may be innocent victims of unwise friend-

ship, but it is difficult to believe that all of them are.

In the professional code now adopted by most of our commonwealths such conduct has been termed unethical when it is practiced in the case of a principalship at Four Corners or the superintendency of Xville schools. How much more should this attitude obtain in the case of a dignified office like the United States commissionership of education? The communications of these office seekers and their friends argue a narrowness of viewpoint and a lack of ethical sensitivity which are quite foreign to the public records of President Roosevelt and Secretary Ickes. We believe that these eminent statesmen are quietly resenting the implication, but whether they are or not, school men of the present day should certainly know that such activities are anachronistic and completely out of date.

If we pass over the instance of the removal of the great Henry Barnard sixty-five years ago, when the office was new and educational ethics little developed, upon one occasion only has politics been allowed to enter into the choice of a commissioner. The president of the United States has generally recognized the nonpartisan character of education. Mr. Cleveland appointed the distinguished philosopher and administrator, William T. Harris, simply because of his ability and reputation, after Doctor Harris had frankly informed him that he was a republican and had voted against him. Mr. Taft selected a lifelong democrat, who had shown himself a conspicuous educational leader throughout the South. Each of these incumbents was retained in office under presidents of both parties.

Commissioner Cooper was likewise appointed purely on the ground of merit. He did not seek the position and he made a financial sacrifice to accept it. Anyone who may have had any doubt of his ability or fidelity to duty at the time of his selection has changed his opinion during the past four years. We have known him only officially, but we have watched his career for more than a decade and believe him to be a thoroughly trained and accomplished leader. The position he holds has never been better filled. The three invaluable surveys he has sponsored—finance, secondary education and teacher preparation—would alone have proved his large capacity for leadership. His silence concerning his claims and his dignified pursuit of his work, without self-glorification or advertising, are in strange contrast to the antics of the office seekers, and should awaken them to an appreciation of the stage of educational ethics at which we have arrived.—*Frank Pierrepont Graves.*

Class Legislation

IT MAY be accepted without discussion or enlargement that our system of taxation is traditional and archaic, suited only to the rural stage from which we passed almost a generation ago. It must also be granted that any system of taxation rests on the degree of economic productivity prevailing at any time. It is therefore obvious that factors of decreased productivity plus excessive burdens on real property must cause delinquency. As the depression increased in intensity delinquencies naturally grew worse.

It is our feeling that while much of this delinquency was necessary, a great deal of it was stimulated by certain taxpayers' leagues, organized and dominated by realty speculators. Much speculative property foisted on a gullible public by high pressure salesmanship at greatly inflated prices, through which the improvements were made at no risk to the subdivision speculator, fell back into the lap of the startled realtor. His wounded cries could be heard for miles. Almost coincidental with this return of "green" property, came the formation of aggressive "taxpayers' leagues," whose secretariat spent its subsidized time criticizing the schools and other agencies of local governments. Its members criticized the debt structure and the current obligations, forgetting quickly how much of this bonded debt had been incurred to meet their selfish desire for improvement on their own properties.

Municipalities and school districts found themselves unable to balance their budgets with these mounting delinquencies. To meet their obligations faithfully, they borrowed against delinquent taxes. Against this perfectly legal and legitimate practice, there were loud objections from the speculative realtor associations thinly disguised as "taxpayers' leagues." In numerous instances their secretariat blandly and naively stated that they expected to "be forgiven these taxes" and that it "wasn't right or ethical to borrow against them."

The results of the lobbying of these selfish interest groups is now apparent. In certain legislatures these "forgiving bills" have already been introduced and, frightened by the outburst against governmental expenditures, the representatives are prepared to vote for the remission of speculative realtor sins. The bills take numerous forms but the substance is the same. They follow so uniform a formula that it must be obvious to even an amateur that they did not originate in the legislature. The most brazen include a ten-year funding agreement for delinquent taxes during the past three years, without interest or penalty, and even forgiveness of delinquencies prior to that

date. They are purely special class legislation and place a penalty on those individuals who in the past have tried to meet their obligations to local and state government.

This type of legislation should be carefully watched by municipalities and school districts and defeated. Most of it cannot stand bright light. It must be condemned because it is special interest legislation, a penalty to those who have been faithful and conscientious, an incentive to future delinquency and destructive of local public credit by eliminating the security on which loans have been secured. This pernicious type of legislation should be defeated at all costs because it is unfair and dishonest class legislation carefully wrapped to give it a semblance of popular appeal.

A Retrogressive Tendency

FOR years the problem of what to do for the prisoners in our state institutions has been a difficult one. Their employment in industry competing with free labor has always been of dubious value. The question of having thousands of idle men and women disintegrating morally, mentally and spiritually in penal institutions is also one that requires serious attention. Through the watchful efforts of organized labor and organized industrial groups, prison labor has gradually been pushed from one pole to another until the sphere of its activity is gradually being narrowed.

This year particularly the need for economy in state expenditures is again bringing the problem to the fore. New state administrations are seeking in a number of instances to cut down the cost of prisons. If they could do something in certain fields where not too much objection or criticism would be raised it might easily be possible to pass much of this expense along to other tax units. This year's particular freak idea in prison legislation appears to be the installation of large and expensive printing and publishing plants in certain state institutions for the production of textbooks for the public schools. Whether the wardens, the "house guests" or certain politico-educators would write and edit the texts is not definitely known. Apparently the first desire is for political control of production. Other attendant evils would appear before long.

The vital need of our public schools is freedom to select the best books published in each field of endeavor. Whatever the weaknesses of our current methods of publishing texts by private corporations may be, the definite advantage up to the present has been that relatively free competition has forced the production of better textbooks than

we have ever had before, superior mechanically and textually to any we have examined from other countries. This same competition, plus large scale production, has also furnished these books on the public school level at extremely reasonable prices. Within fair and reasonable limits, there is also evidence of a high degree of editorial integrity.

The allocation of the textbook field to prison management, prison vision and prison control is something that the professional educator should not tolerate. This type of legislation has little chance of becoming law if full and free publicity is given in each state. Leadership in our state professional organizations should take the lead aggressively in bringing this matter squarely before the people. Merciless publicity, plus the weight of men and women prominent in the field, will create a public opinion that will not tolerate such retrogressive tendencies and crude attempts at partisan control of the textbook—a vital agency in the education of our children.

Pay Your Dues

OUR professional organizations, state and national, are carrying on a noble fight to preserve public education in terms of American ideals and traditions. They are organized to provide information, plans and suggestions for combating the influence of selfish groups.

It would be impossible for local organizations to carry on effectively without the excellent research and news services of the state and national bodies. To provide these services costs money. The reserve resources of state and national education associations are slender. With almost typical lack of foresight and discounting of the consequences, many educators have allowed their membership in state and national professional organizations to lapse. These organizations have suffered heavily in the past two years. Current income is hardly sufficient in many cases to maintain their informational services.

The worth and value of the professional organization should be brought to the attention of the educator in terms of the requirement of continuity in these services for the safety of the schools and of the profession. Presentation of the facts and persuasion are the only things necessary.

Executives will find investment in the research service of the National Education Association one of the best possible uses of money in the present emergency. Spring discussion sections in all school districts are feasible to bring back the lost members and to supplement immediately current inadequate revenue.

Happy to Say—By WILLIAM McANDREW

MANY men who now have the public ear declare that the joyous 'rah-rah style of high school you folks permit or promote is responsible for the present young citizens who have graduated as a race of Peter Pans who can't grow up. Don't waste time denying this. Demonstrate that your main studies and exercises are citizenship, politics, economics, studies of local government as it is, discussions over its weaknesses, provisions for curing them. This is the surest way to show that your critics are wrong.

IT IS pretty good mental house cleaning occasion—ally to take two slips of paper and on one to write a list of what you wish for; on the other, what you need.

IF EVERY evening, a man should write additions to a list of disagreeable things he is done with, the sight of that accumulation would make growing old take on a good deal of satisfaction.

IF DEFEATED, you refuse to admit it, many will think you won, and the first thing you know, you will think so, yourself. By that time, you have.

I THINK the brightest spot in Denver is the Opportunity School; its brightest feature, Emily Griffith; the brightest thing she ever said, "I learned long ago never to tell any one 'You're not able to do it.'"

"I WANT to go home" is an old, old cry of children and must always be so while mothers are alive. But there are places where children honestly say "I want to go to school." A superintendent who says "I'll make this a want-to-go-to-school town" is worth more than his salt.

AFTER all is said, a school is as good or as bad as the teachers in it and no duty of a superintendent compares with getting extraordinary teachers and persuading them to be better.

ONE way to keep a friend is to continue borrowing money of him.

WHEN disappointed, the wise man turns his sorrow into philosophy: the fool gives way to anger.

AN IDEAL is an idea with your heart in it.

INSTEAD of a chip on the shoulder, wear a flower in the buttonhole.

BEWARE that poise isn't merely pose.

YOUR personal depression is like neighbor Uncle Hawkins' itching skin. He says it never bothers him when he's working.

ALL my life I have waited for the time I might find a class of men admittedly less intelligent than schoolmasters. And now, here they are: financiers.

RICHARD WHITNEY, president, New York Stock Exchange, is quoted: "Speculation built this nation." Oliver Wendell Holmes said schools did it. Give a Richard for an Oliver. I'd trade any speculation-built nation for one made by schools. So would you.

THE one whom the crowd calls great isn't so to you unless you feel a change within due to some imitation of him toward excellence.

BUY American. American is what the schools are offering. They are where to invest right now.

IF YOU want to be wretched because you'll feel so good after you get over it, don't assume that the same thing will be true of your neighbor if you make him miserable.

AWISE old teacher once said: When new children come to school they seem like blank sheets of paper. But they have been written on with invisible ink. The right kind of warmth brings out the love letters.

ONE with fifteen dollars to spend gets more out of every dollar than the guy who has fifteen hundred to blow. In a similar way you enjoy your days more in old age than you did before you reached that happy state. Encouragement for you oldsters. You may not have as much energy as you did at thirty, but you certainly know how to do more worth while things with it.

IT'S time to cause to be printed on every diploma: "For value received, I promise to pay my countrymen continuous cooperative service." Signature of graduate.

News of the Month

Educators From Four States Meet at New York University

More than 1,500 educators of New York State, New Jersey, Pennsylvania and Connecticut met at New York University on March 10 and 11 for the ninth junior high school conference conducted by the school of education. Professor Earl R. Gabler was chairman of the conference committee.

The conference opened with a general session in the school of education auditorium. More than 200 speakers addressed the thirty-two sections and discussion groups of the conference on problems of junior high school education.

Thirty-two university professors, three presidents of state teachers' colleges, fifteen school superintendents and forty-one school principals addressed the gathering.

The typical classroom teacher is deprived today of vital social issues largely because of the nature of her training and because her thoughts and those of her pupils pertain to the problems of yesteryear and seldom stimulate interest or challenge to the finality of the solution given in some archaic, theoretical textbook, according to Daniel P. Eginton, assistant supervisor of research and surveys, Connecticut State Board of Education.

Need Clear Thinking on Controversial Issues

Mr. Eginton discussed the topic "What Should Be the Attitude of the Junior High School Toward Controversial Social and Political Issues?" He held that it should take an impersonal, scientific attitude.

"Steps should be taken," he declared, "to lead pupils to a consideration of all the facts pertaining to controversial problems so as to avoid indoctrination which will cause them to be unable to think clearly and independently. The dangers of having children study controversial issues should be recognized but should not be accepted as being so serious that they cannot be avoided. Pupils should begin early to recognize and think about major economic and political problems which must be solved in the future in order to achieve the ideals of democracy."

Harold Rugg, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, declared that it was

the responsibility of educational workers to build up the necessary nourishing climate around youth.

"Throughout the country," he said, "the youth have imbibed deeply of the American gospel of success—free competition, laissez faire, and the exploitation of your neighbor for your own profit.

"The outcome is a widespread feeling of vicious hypocrisy and because of this a considerable percentage of youth in urban America are at this moment potential racketeers," he continued. "Another result of these beliefs is the widespread adoption by young people of the 'get something for nothing' attitude."

Value of Tests Stressed

John H. Kingsley, assistant superintendent in charge of research, promotion and child accounting, Albany, N. Y., declared that no teacher could do much toward the realization of "the American dream" who ignored the values of tests and measures. "Present reaction," he declared, "against the use of intelligence tests is due to the inadequacy of the testing program and the misinterpretation of the data."

Leon C. Staples, superintendent of schools, Plainville, Conn., discussing the topic, "News-papers—Instruments of Propaganda or of Education," declared that the real conflict between the press and education was in the question of news values. Education, he declared, "deals with ideas, ideals and spiritual values. The press is looking for incidents. Yet, we are both dealing with the same public and there must be a common ground upon which we can stand."

Round table discussions were held on topics ranging from "What Should Be the Junior High School's Attitude Toward the New Social Order?" to "Whither Radio Broadcasting in the New Age?"

Speakers at the opening session included H. A. Sprague, president, State Teachers College, Montclair, N. J.; Paul D. Collier, senior supervisor of education, state department of education, Hartford, Conn.; William Lewin, chairman, photoplay appreciation committee, National Council of Teachers of English; Albert I. Prince, editor, the *Hartford Times*, Hartford, Conn., and Professor Philip W. L. Cox of the New York University School of Education.

News of the Month (Cont'd)

Where to Find the Facts on Teachers' Salaries

The National Education Association, through the director of its research division, William G. Carr, has prepared a list of sources of information on questions concerning teachers' salary scheduling and related problems. The research division receives hundreds of requests for information of this kind each year. The questions given below with the research division's reference to available data, are examples of the type of information that the list contains:

1. Where can general comparative statistics be secured on expenditures for education and other purposes? Such figures are secured from many different sources and consequently recent comparisons are usually impossible. The latest comparative data now available are for 1930. These data are reported in "Facts on School Costs," N. E. A. Research Bulletin No. 10, November, 1932.

2. Where can facts be secured to show the position of expenditures for salaries among other school expenditures? These facts are compiled according to states every two years by the U. S. Office of Education. The latest compilation is "Statistics of State School Systems," Office of Education Bulletin No. 5, 1930. The most recent report on per capita costs and percentage distributions of the city school budget is "Per Capita Costs in City Schools, 1931-32," Office of Education Circular No. 73.

3. Where can statements be procured on the general theory of salary scheduling? Such statements can be found in almost any good textbook on school finance, personnel management or school administration in general. The latest publication given over entirely to this question is "Teachers' Salaries," by Willard S. Elsbree, Teachers College, Columbia University. The N. E. A. Research Bulletin for May, 1927, deals with the same general field but with less attention to the detailed techniques of salary schedule construction than is found in the other publication.

4. How can salaries paid teachers be compared with those paid other occupational groups? The U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics frequently publishes figures that show prevailing wage rates, especially for union labor, in various cities and districts of the nation. Salaries of many classes of employees in the governmental services are reported by the Personnel Classification Board

(House Document 602, 70th Congress, second session). Comparisons on a national basis between the salaries of teachers and of certain other occupational groups for 1928 are available in a recent publication of the N. E. A., "What's Ahead for Teachers' Salaries?"

5. Where can recent information be secured concerning the effect of the depression on teachers' salaries? This topic is covered for city schools in the N. E. A. Research Bulletin for March, 1933. For rural schools the best source is "The Report of Proceedings of the Citizens Conference on the Crisis in Education." This pamphlet was prepared in January, 1933.

"Wayside," Former Home of Authors, Will Be Open to Tourists

Of interest to teachers and school administrators who plan to visit the New England states this summer is the announcement that "Wayside," Concord, Mass., successively the home of Louisa M. Alcott, Nathaniel Hawthorne and Mrs. Daniel Lothrop, the "Margaret Sidney" author of "Five Little Peppers," will be open during the entire vacation season.

Miss Alcott lived in "Wayside" for three and a half years, until her sixteenth birthday. The house was then purchased by Hawthorne, who added the tower, or "sky parlor," as his study. Later, Mrs. Lothrop purchased the house, where she lived and wrote for more than forty years.

"Wayside" has remained much as Hawthorne left it. Some of his furniture was kept by Mrs. Lothrop and all of her own furniture is intact. Even the old finish on the interior woodwork remains. This little known American literary shrine is being maintained by Mrs. Lothrop's daughter, Margaret M. Lothrop, who resides there from May until October.

Parent-Teacher Congress Will Meet in Seattle

The thirty-seventh annual convention of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers will be held in Seattle, Wash., May 21 to 27, according to a recent announcement. "The Child and His Community" will be the central theme of this year's conference.

News of the Month (Cont'd)

New York School Head Sees Danger for "Slow" Pupils

Educators dealing with "slow progress" children should not overemphasize manual training to the exclusion of academic subjects, Mr. William J. O'Shea, superintendent of schools, New York City, declared recently in a statement which he plans to include in his annual report.

The danger of neglecting academic subject matter, he said, lies in the circumstance that the "slow-progress" children from whom this material is withheld may become mere "hewers of wood and drawers of water." In discussing this point Mr. O'Shea drew upon the findings of a committee that has been working under the direction of Dr. Maurice E. Rogalin, principal, Girls High School, Brooklyn.

"The committee holds," Mr. O'Shea declared, "that general objectives of education are the same for slower, average and bright classes and that no subject of the elementary school curriculum should be omitted in its entirety for slower classes, because each subject is essential to the full realization of the general objectives of education.

"Pupils in slower classes should be taught those habits and skills which are generally needed by the ordinary person in actual life situations outside the school. In penmanship, such a person needs a plain, legible handwriting; in arithmetic, the ability to work the four fundamental operations with integers, and the ability to do the simplest kind of work with common and decimal fractions, simple business forms and the fundamentals of percentage.

"Slow progress pupils should be taught the facts and generalizations which are needed in ordinary life. When facts, as in history, are for the purpose of getting a feeling or an attitude, or as in geography for the purpose of leading up to a generalization, they are of less importance than the attitudes to which they lead.

"The day is past when boys and girls are to be broken on the wheel of established school organizations, whether elementary or high, and the spirit of teachers crushed by condemning them to impossible tasks. Schools are justified in giving their diplomas to pupils who have reached, through honest effort, the limit of their development."

Mr. O'Shea expressed regret that in several schools "unreasonable" demands for achievement were made upon pupils and teachers. He pointed

out that in New York City schools, where slow progress children are placed in special classes, these children were no longer called upon to see themselves outdistanced by "normal progress" and "rapid progress" children and were no longer impressed with the consciousness of failure.

Rockefeller Fund Gave \$10,816,146 to Schools in Year

The General Education Board appropriated \$10,816,146 for the support of education in the fiscal year ended June 30, 1932, it was disclosed in the board's annual report, made public March 22. The board was founded in 1902 by John D. Rockefeller.

Though the appropriations showed an increase of \$1,653,423 over the previous fiscal year, the report listed actual disbursements from interest and principal at \$8,626,681, much less than the \$16,142,492 disbursements listed in the report of the previous fiscal year.

Income received during the fiscal year amounted to \$3,650,683, about six-sevenths of the income received in the previous year. Undisbursed income on hand at the end of the fiscal year amounted to \$12,562,908.

Changes in the board's membership and officers were revealed in the report. John D. Rockefeller III, was elected to membership, Raymond B. Fosdick was elected chairman to succeed the late Dr. Wallace Buttrick, Warren Weaver was made director for natural sciences and Lefferts M. Dashiell treasurer.

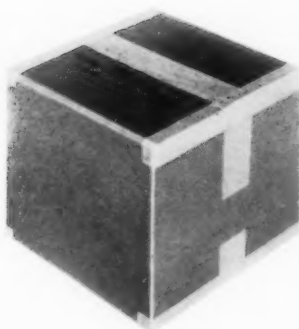
Liberalization of conditions of gifts for endowment was announced in the report, the board providing that the income of each future gift shall be used for ten years for the specific purpose named, that thereafter the income may be used for other related purposes and that after fifty years the principal may be expended. But the board decided that gifts for endowment could not properly be invested in plant or buildings of the institution.

Of the \$10,816,146 appropriated during the fiscal year, \$8,452,385 was for whites and \$1,782,596 for Negroes, in addition to smaller amounts for miscellaneous surveys and projects. This brought the total appropriations since the board's foundation in 1902 to \$232,062,744. This year's fiscal appropriations were \$3,908,846 from income and \$6,907,300 from principal.

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News of the Month (Cont'd)

Annual Schoolmen's Week Held at University of Pennsylvania

The twentieth annual Schoolmen's Week was held at the University of Pennsylvania, March 29 to April 1. This joint project of the University of Pennsylvania and the Southeastern district of the Pennsylvania State Education Association attracted a large gathering of educators, principally from the Eastern states.

The State School Directors Association endorsed a resolution urging upon the Pennsylvania legislature a measure which, among other things, would vest in local school authorities the power to reduce teachers' salaries by 5 per cent for two years.

A large number of interesting and significant papers were read at the meeting, included among which were the following:

"The New Responsibility for the Education of Youth," H. O. Dietrich, superintendent of schools, Norristown, Pa.; "Education's New Responsibilities From the Standpoint of Industry," George S. Stuart, secretary, Philadelphia Builders Exchange and Employers Association; "Educational Implications of Recent Economic Changes," S. Howard Patterson, professor of economics, University of Pennsylvania; "Education and a Job for Everybody," Harold F. Clark, Teachers College, Columbia University; "Social and Educational Trends in the United States," Dr. Charles H. Judd, University of Chicago; "The Changing Social Order and Our Responsibility," Charlotte E. Ray, dean of women, Pennsylvania State College; "Helping Boys and Girls to Choose Their Future Occupations," Samuel S. Gulick, Lower Merion Junior High School, Philadelphia.

Childhood Education Group Plans Annual Convention

The annual convention of the Association for Childhood Education will be held in Denver, June 27 to July 1. The five-day program will be headed by educators of national and international prominence. More than one thousand teachers are expected to attend the convention.

The local committee in charge of the convention is made up of teachers of the Denver public schools. Helen R. Gumlick, supervisor of kindergarten and primary grades, Denver, is general chairman of

the convention, and Edwina Fallis, Denver kindergarten teacher, is local chairman.

Julia Wade Abbott, a member of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, is president of the Association for Childhood Education.

The association is an outgrowth of the International Kindergarten Union and the National Council of Primary Education.

California Schools Hit by Quake Will Be Wrecked

Seven Los Angeles schools, damaged in the recent earthquake, have been ordered wrecked and one other building partly demolished by the Los Angeles board of education. The action followed the recommendation of inspectors that the structures were unsafe and a menace to pupils.

The earthquake has made necessary repairs to practically every building in the Long Beach, Calif., \$12,000,000 school system, it is reported. It is estimated by school authorities that about two-thirds of the structures must be razed.

Enrollment in Emergency Education Classes Is 20,000

More than 1,000 highly trained unemployed professional and business men and women have received work through state unemployment relief funds as instructors in "emergency education" courses in which the enrollment is now more than 20,000, according to the first report on the "emergency education" experiment made recently to the board of regents by Dr. Lewis A. Wilson, assistant commissioner for vocational and extension education, New York State Education Department, under whose direction the project is being conducted.

More than 14,000 unemployed adults have enrolled in these free day adult education classes in New York City, according to the report. Among courses organized during the last few weeks are classes to provide training for large numbers of unemployed Negroes living in Harlem and Brooklyn and special classes to meet the needs of unemployed seamen.



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News of the Month (Cont'd)

California Cuts Education Costs \$63,000,000 in Three Years

Education costs have been reduced by \$63,000,000 in California local school districts during the last three years, according to a recent report by Dr. George A. Rice, associate professor of education, and director of practice teaching, University of California.

The saving has been effected by reducing salaries, using to the maximum every unit of school equipment, cutting supplies and maintenance, increasing the size of classes, reducing the number of teachers and accepting additional voluntary service from instructors.

Doctor Rice's report cites the University High School, Oakland, as an example. In 1928, seventy-two teachers taught 1,566 pupils in that school. Today, sixty teachers instruct 1,601 pupils. The classrooms are so crowded, the report states, that scarcely one has chairs enough to seat all the pupils in every class during a day.

State Legislatures Study Plans to Curtail Education Systems

Curtailement of educational facilities, particularly higher education, revision of school administration, reduction in costs because of reduced tax revenue, and other allied matters are occupying the attention of many state legislatures now in session.

In some states, California being one instance, doubt exists as to whether it will be possible to continue to operate the public schools, according to a statement issued by V. Kersey, state superintendent of public instruction.

In Texas, the state senate has defeated a bill proposing to abolish eight state colleges, and in Oklahoma Governor Murray by executive order has abolished the school of engineering at the University of Oklahoma and directed other changes designed, he said, to avoid duplication and making economies estimated at more than \$150,000 annually.

The Rhode Island legislature has under consideration a series of measures endorsed by the state department of education to raise additional revenue for state aid for schools, while in South Carolina there is pending a measure repealing the

so-called 6-0-1 school law, under which the state provides aid to the public schools for six months each year. It is proposed to provide state aid for seven months for grammar schools and eight months for high schools.

The Kansas senate has rejected a bill proposing to reduce the salaries of school teachers. It was declared in debate on the measure that teachers' salaries in Kansas have increased from \$12,000,000 in 1920 to \$20,000,000 in 1930. The Indiana legislature passed a bill providing that the state may pay not to exceed \$600 of the salary of each public school teacher. Heretofore, such payments have been made by the school corporations.

In Maryland bills have just been introduced in the legislature to make effective Governor Ritchie's recommendations concerning the state school system. Under the provisions of these bills the salaries of teachers and principals would be reduced on a percentage basis ranging from 10 per cent of salaries under \$1,200 to 15 per cent on those of \$3,600 or more. These reductions, it was explained, are in conformity with those recommended by the governor for all other state officials and employees.

Other bills in Maryland would make certain reductions in school taxes, and one would make it possible for the state board of education to fix uniform fees and tuition charges at the state normal schools for white students.

Summer School for Custodians Will Be Held at Minneapolis

The University of Minnesota has announced the opening of a summer school for janitors, engineers and custodians of school houses and other public buildings, to be held June 19 to 24, at the Janitor Engineer Training School, Minneapolis.

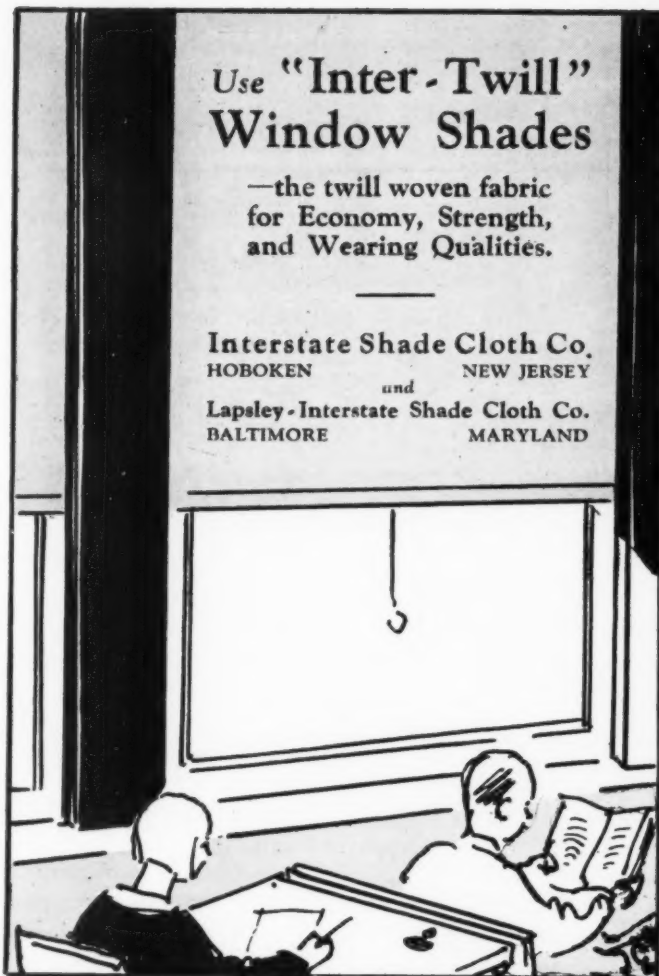
The school offers an intensive practical training course for ambitious men who seek a general knowledge of school janitorial-engineering work, or who desire special training for the higher fields of this vocation. The summer training work is divided into three departments: (1) housekeeping and sanitation; (2) heating and ventilating, and (3) maintenance and management.

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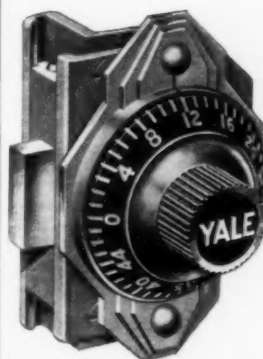


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In the Educational Field

HUGH J. MOLLOY, superintendent of schools, Lowell, Mass., for nearly twenty-one years, died at his home in that city on March 17, after a lingering illness. MR. MOLLOY, who was seventy years of age, had been engaged in the teaching profession for forty years. He became head of the Lowell school system in June, 1912.

OTTO F. AKEN has been appointed to succeed the late EDWARD J. TOBIN as superintendent of schools, Cook County, Illinois. MR. AKEN served as assistant superintendent under his predecessor, which position he assumed in 1923. He was appointed superintendent of schools, Jackson County, Illinois, in 1914.

FLOYD B. WATSON has been elected superintendent of schools, Rockville Center, N. Y., to succeed WILLIAM S. COVERT, who retired recently after serving the schools of the district for twenty-seven years.

W. NORMAN WAMPLER has been elected superintendent of schools, Shelby, Mont., to succeed W. E. MOSER, who resigned recently. MR. WAMPLER was formerly principal of Shelby High School.

GEORGE L. BLAKESLEE has been elected superintendent, consolidated school district, Corvallis, Mont.

A. H. BAKER, superintendent of schools for the past five years, District No. 28, Lake County, Montana, has resigned. This is said to be the largest school district in the United States. Due to economic conditions, it is probable that the vacancy will not be filled for the coming year.

DR. WILBUR F. DUNHAM has been appointed superintendent, School for Feeble-minded Youth, Fort Wayne, Ind.

DR. ARTHUR CLARKE BOYDEN, for twenty-five years president, State Teachers College, Bridgewater, Mass., and one of Massachusetts' leading educators, died March 15, at the age of eighty years.

DR. WILLIAM L. FELTER, noted Brooklyn, N. Y., educator, who retired on February 3 as principal, Girls High School, Brooklyn, after forty-nine years of service in the city's school system, died March 19, at the age of seventy years. DOCTOR FELTER entered the New York City public school system in 1883.

K. S. MCKEE, who for the past two years has been assistant superintendent of schools, Elkins, W. Va., has been elected superintendent of the city's school system. MR. MCKEE has been associated with the Elkins schools for thirteen years. He will assume the superintendency after July 1.

R. C. BOWTON, superintendent of schools, Alexandria, Va., has submitted his resignation to the school board, to become effective at the end of the current term, June 30.

H. A. DAVEE, superintendent of schools, Geraldine, Mont., for the past five years, has been elected to head the school system at Plains, Mont., next year.

JOHN E. COLLINS, professor of education, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio, since 1924, died at Fort Wayne, Ind., on March 24, as a result of injuries sustained in an automobile accident.

DR. GRAYSON NEIKIRK KEFAUVER will assume the duties of dean of the Stanford University school of education next fall, replacing DEAN ELLWOOD PATTERSON CUBBERLEY, who retires from active teaching at the end of this year.

OSCAR C. GALLAGHER, head of the department of education, Keene Normal School, Keene, N. H., and formerly superintendent of schools, Brookline, Mass., died at his home in Keene on March 3. MR. GALLAGHER was superintendent of schools in Brookline from 1919-31.

CARL ANDERSON, dean of boys, has been appointed superintendent, J. Sterling Morton High School, Cicero, Ill. He succeeds PAUL R. SHELLEY, who was named acting superintendent several months ago to replace HARRY V. CHURCH, formerly superintendent.

T. S. SMITH, formerly a state school supervisor for Georgia, has been appointed superintendent, Reidsville High School, Reidsville, Ga. MR. SMITH will assume his new post next year.

DR. CHARLES HENRY FORBES, who had been acting headmaster, Phillips Andover Academy, Andover, Mass., since November, 1931, died of a heart attack on March 12. He was sixty-six years of age. DR. CLAUDE MOORE FUESS, who has been associated with the academy since 1908, has been appointed acting headmaster. DOCTOR FORBES, who was first named to the academy's teaching

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In the Educational Field

staff as an instructor of Latin in 1891, ascended to the headmastership following the recent resignation of DR. ALFRED E. STEARNS, now recuperating from an illness at Nice, France.

W. A. DENNY, superintendent of schools, Anderson, Ind., for the last twenty-five years, recently submitted his resignation to the school board.

WILLIAM E. SMITH, superintendent of schools, Fairfield, Conn., has resigned his position, due to ill health, after twenty-four years' service in educational work in that city. No permanent successor will be appointed this year, the school board announced. MINNIE E. WALSH, assistant superintendent, has been placed in charge of the elementary schools for the balance of the year.

WILLARD W. ANDREWS, prominent educator, died March 16 in Albany, N. Y. MR. ANDREWS was superintendent of schools, Whitehall, N. Y., for many years before moving to Albany in 1915. Later he became president and treasurer of the Albany Teachers' Agency.

DR. CHARLES MCKINNEY, president, Michigan State Teachers College, Ypsilanti, Mich., has been granted an indefinite leave of absence on account of ill health. The college will be administered during his absence by a committee consisting of PROFESSOR ANPACH, PROFESSOR FORD and MR. STEINLE, registrar.

DR. CORA HELEN COOLIDGE, president, Pennsylvania College for Women, Pittsburgh, for the past eleven years, died recently at her home in that city after an illness of several months. DOCTOR COOLIDGE's entire life was spent in literary and educational work, and she was widely known as a lecturer on these subjects.

DR. HEDLEY BRIDGES, for twenty-six years principal, Provincial Normal School, Fredericton, N. B., died March 12, at the age of seventy years.

DR. FRANCIS HAAS, president, Pennsylvania State Teachers College, Bloomsburg, Pa., has been reelected president, Pennsylvania State Education Association.

DR. WILLARD E. HOTCHKISS, formerly dean of the Stanford University graduate school of business, has been appointed president, Armour Institute of Technology, Chicago.

HENRY T. HODGKIN, director, Pendle Hill School, Wallingford, Pa., died March 27 in Dublin, Irish Free State, where he had gone last summer.

JOHN W. DAVIS, for more than half a century prominent in the New York City public school system, died recently at his home in that city, at the age of seventy-three years. Prior to his retirement in 1927, MR. DAVIS held the post of director of attendance.

DR. PAUL S. LOMAX, school of education, New York University, was presented with the 1933 Medallion of the Eastern Commercial Teachers Association at the organization's annual conference, held at Washington, D. C., April 12-15.

"New Blood" Needed to Meet Present School Demands

"New blood" is needed more today in the teaching profession than ever before, yet the demand for new teachers is almost nonexistent. This fact was stressed by Dr. Alonzo F. Myers, president, Eastern States Association of Professional Schools for Teachers, at the eighth annual conference of that body, held April 7 in New York City.

"Under present conditions," said Doctor Myers, "I believe it would be advisable to retire older teachers eligible for retirement to make it possible to bring young teachers into the schools." Dr. Frank E. Baker, president, State Teachers College, Milwaukee, and H. A. Brown, president, Illinois State Normal University, were among the speakers.

The conference went on record as approving among other things, limited admissions to teachers' colleges, selective admissions, distributive admissions with a fair representation for every part of the area served, a minimum of four years' course of study, specialized study in the last two years, campus laboratory schools and student teaching in the public schools.

Doctor Myers was reelected president of the association, and M. Ernest Townsend, principal, New Jersey State Normal School, was elected treasurer succeeding Lawrence H. van den Berg, principal, State Normal School, New Paltz, N. Y., who was made a vice president. Lester K. Ade, principal, State Normal School, New Haven, Conn., is secretary, and Samuel T. Rutledge, executive secretary.

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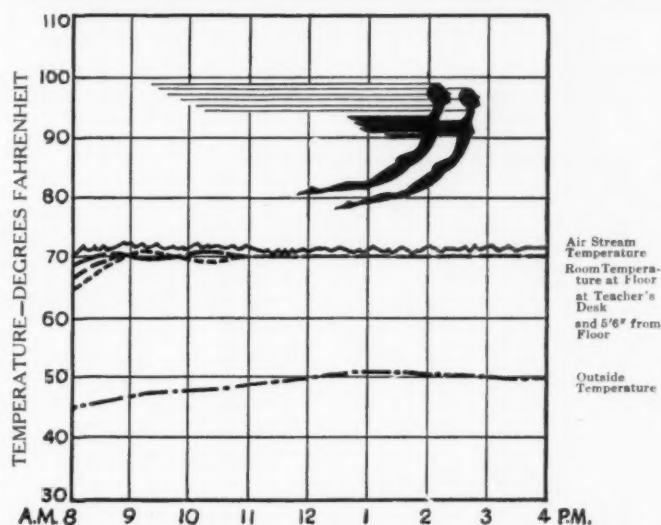
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A new type of drive is being applied to a return line vacuum heating pump made by the Nash Engineering Co., South Norwalk, Conn. The Jennings Vapor Turbine Heating Pump is driven by steam direct from the supply mains, and the steam is returned to the heating system with a minimum heat loss. This utilization of steam power generated in an institution's own boiler plant gives all the advantages of a continuously operating vacuum pump, and yet reduces the cost of vacuum pump

by the vapor turbine valve, which is so proportioned that the proper quantity of steam is passed from the supply main to the turbine under all load conditions. After passing through the turbine, the steam is returned to the heating system, having given up heat represented by $2\frac{1}{2}$ pounds expansion, equivalent to approximately three-fourths of 1 per cent of the total heat of the steam.

The condensate and air are handled in separate pump elements, consisting of a centrifugal pump combined with the Hytor vacuum pump which delivers maximum condensate capacity at the same time it delivers maximum air capacity.

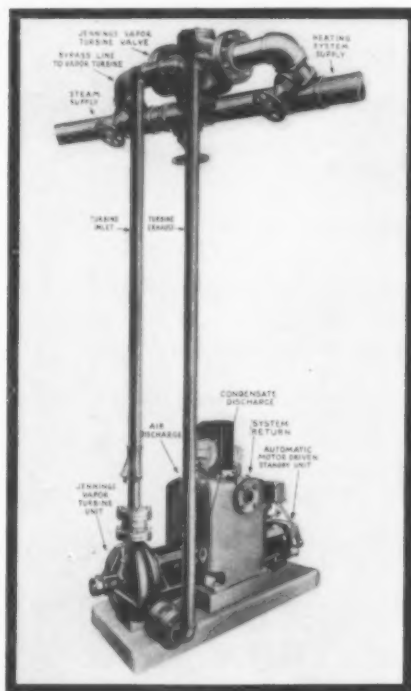
A complete electrically operated stand-by unit with full automatic control by vacuum and float is combined with the turbine driven pump as a safety measure. The capacity of both pumps may be used under emergency peak load conditions, and the electrically driven unit will cut in automatically whenever the steam supply is inadequate to operate the turbine. An emergency trip valve cuts off the steam supply in the event conditions are such that the turbine is subjected to overspeed.

The two pumping units are bronze fitted throughout, including a bronze air rotor in a separate bronze housing; an enclosed bronze water impeller; a bronze port plate; renewable bronze sealing rings; a bronze clamping nut, and tobin bronze shaft.

The motor that is provided with the electrical unit is standard, and has an integral mounting bracket.

The tank is of the low type, without pedestals, and affords the lowest return connection consistent with the temperature of the water being handled. The tank is designed for large capacity in the smallest possible floor space. Bronze air discharge check valves are built integral with the tank, and are readily accessible for replacement and inspection. The air separator is cast integral with the tank. All connections between the pumping elements and the tank are also cast integral, which reduces the cost of installation and makes for trim appearance.

A large size strainer is made possible by the integral construction of the tank. The strainer is readily accessible for cleaning or inspection.



This shows the vapor turbine heating pump connected through the vapor turbine valve to the steam main.

operation. The vapor turbine pump operates on any low pressure vacuum heating system, although the steam may be supplied either from a low pressure boiler, or from a high pressure boiler through a reducing valve.

The pump operates on a differential of five inches of mercury vacuum between the supply and the inlet, regardless of whether the system is operated above or below atmospheric pressure. This differential is constantly and correctly maintained



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In your spring buying activities, economy will be expected—an economy based

not on price but on a rational judgment of quality and service. Executives will study the needs of their schools carefully. They will buy with an eye on utility, knowing that an intelligent equipment of the school plant is part and parcel with the highest of educational ideals.

Study the pages of The NATION'S SCHOOLS—both advertising and editorial. Here will be found authoritative, reliable and helpful information to guide you. If you need any personal assistance write us a letter and explain your problem.

Full Automatic Operation Features New Folding Partitions

In order to secure the maximum use of floor space in school buildings it is often necessary to use folding partition doors between two gymnasiums or between a combination auditorium-stage, so that the stage may be used as a gymnasium and the auditorium as a lecture room. The economy obtained by this measure has, in a number of instances, been offset by the difficulty of maintenance and operation of the folding partition, and the disturbance caused in one room by the activities in the other. However, as the requirements for proper installation came to be understood better by door manufacturers, improved partitions resulted that overcame these objections.

A recent development in this line is the No. 888 Folder-Way partition made by the Richards-Wilcox Manufacturing Company, Aurora, Ill., in which the partition is completely controlled and operated by an electric motor. It is not necessary to perform any manual work, such as raising or lowering the floor bolts, breaking the half door or lowering the soundproof closure strips in order to open, close, lock or unlock the partition. The entire operation of opening or closing the door is performed by turning the key switch.

The partition allows for any normal changes in the building, such as settling or sagging of the overhead truss. This is accomplished by allowing a one-inch clearance between the bottom of the partition and the floor when the partition is in operation. This clearance may be allowed because the partition lowers onto the floor when the closing operation is completed.

Sealed Tight Top and Bottom

Soundproof strips of three-quarter-inch sponge rubber which project three-eighths of an inch below the bottom of the door form a cushioned seat when the door is lowered onto the floor. When the partition is in contact with the floor the sponge rubber seals the opening against the transmission of sound, light and air. The sponge rubber strip-ping and the lowering principle form an effective floor lock for the partition.

All the hardware is concealed, with the exception of the locks and latches on the wicket doors. The partition thereby presents a perfectly flush and unbroken surface on both sides. Ball bearing invisible hinges are used throughout.

The floor track is flush with the top of the gymnasium floor, and has no groove or depression to collect dust and dirt.

All the doors are full size. The door adjacent to

the jamb is automatically folded by a concealed breaker arm. This door is also brought back to the fully closed position by the breaker arm, and the flap is forced tight against the door to form a felt lined closure.

The overhead supporting track is made of nine-gauge steel and the hanger runways are five-eighths-inch round, cold rolled steel bars that are welded into the track. This provides a friction-proof runway and a self-cleaning track. The track is supported by adjustable steel brackets and steel supporting members to which the finished trim is attached with machine screws. The hangers are heavy duty ball bearing, and the contour of the wheel has a slightly larger radius than that of the five-eighths-inch bar in the track in which they ride. The hanger frame is malleable cast, and is provided with fiber guides for the chain.

The electric operator is a one-half-horsepower motor, which operates the partition by means of a roller chain. The operator is equipped with an emergency release device so that in case of a temporary interruption of the electric current the partition may be operated by hand.

Local Emergency Lighting System Operates Automatically

A fully automatic emergency lighting system for vital locations of limited area where continuous lighting is necessary, such as auditoriums and swimming pools, is the latest product of The Electric Storage Battery Co., Allegheny Avenue and Nineteenth Street, Philadelphia. Keepalite is a self-contained emergency lighting system which supplies a separate source of electric current to its own high efficiency low voltage lamps.

Keepalite consists of an Exide battery, an automatic relay, a battery charger, switches and a signal assembled in a compact case that is 2 feet by 9 inches long, 10 inches deep and 16 inches high. The rest of the equipment consists of 100-watt low voltage lamps that are equivalent to two 110-volt lamps of equal wattage, and specially designed lamp globes to provide a maximum light distribution. The case may be mounted on a shelf or wall within the room to be guarded, and one or more lamps can be easily installed at strategic points and connected by wiring them to the case.

This emergency lighting operates whenever the normal supply power is interrupted. It automatically and instantaneously lights the protected area of the building. When normal power is restored the emergency system automatically shuts off, and the battery goes back on trickle charge.

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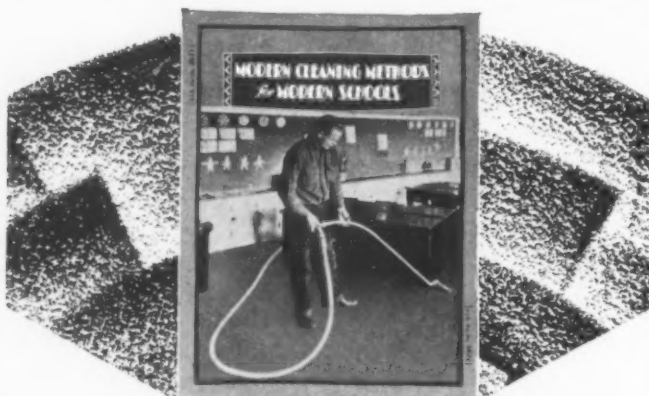
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